

The Social Studies

Continuing

THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

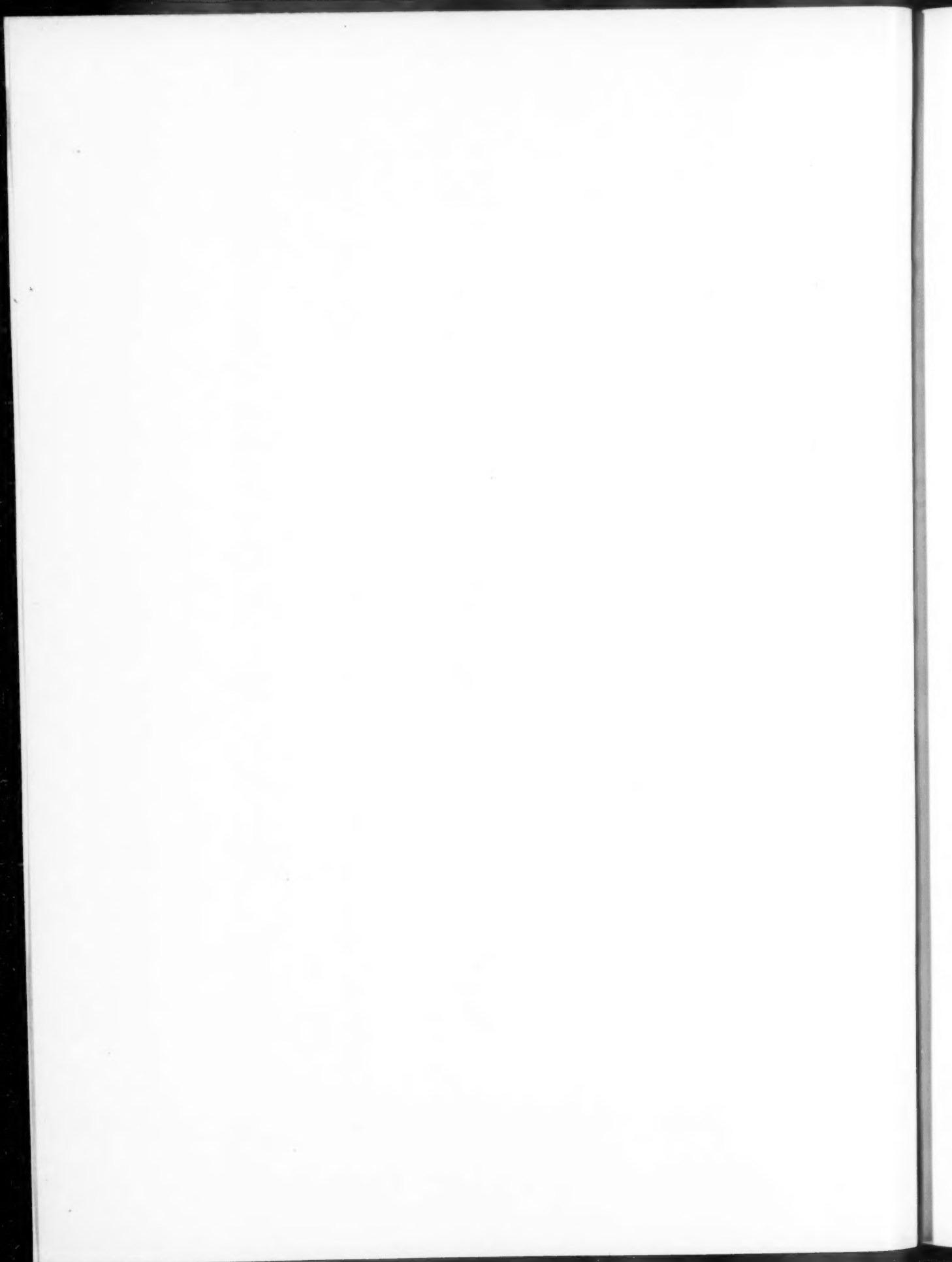
VOLUME XXXV

JANUARY—DECEMBER, 1944

PHILADELPHIA

McKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY

1944



The Social Studies

Volume XXXV, Number 1

Continuing *The Historical Outlook*

January, 1944

ARTHUR C. BINING, *Editor*
MORRIS WOLF, *Assistant Editor*

A. E. MCKINLEY, JR., *Managing Editor*
RICHARD H. McFEELY, *Book Review Editor*

EDITORIAL BOARD

HATTIE M. ANDERSON
*West Texas State Teachers
College
Canyon, Tex.*

JAMES J. FLYNN
*Bishop Loughlin Memo-
rial High School
Brooklyn, N.Y.*

WILLIAM E. LINGELBACH
*University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.*

EDWIN M. PURINTON
*Maine Central Institute
Pittsfield, Me.*

JULIAN ARONSON
*Seward Park High School
New York, N.Y.*

BESS HEDGES
*College High School
Bartlesville, Okla.*

ASA E. MARTIN
*Pennsylvania State College
State College, Pa.*

HERBERT WING, JR.
*Dickinson College
Carlisle, Pa.*

NANCY O. DEVERS
*Division of Instructional
Service
Raleigh, N.C.*

HOMER T. KNIGHT
*Garfield High School
Seattle, Wash.*

ROY F. NICHOLS
*University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.*

THOMAS WOODY
*University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.*

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER
*De Witt Clinton Junior
High School
Mount Vernon, N.Y.*

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON
*New York University
New York, N.Y.*

CHARLOTTE M. NOTEBOOM
*University of South Dakota
Vermillion, S.D.*

Contents

History as a Living Force	Christopher Crittenden	3
Revised Historical Viewpoints	Ralph B. Guinness	8
Making Pupils Like History	E. Pearle Scriven	10
General George C. Marshall	John R. Craf	13
Teaching the Use of the Library	Katheryne Baugh	15
Australia's Role in the World Conflict	Frances Norene Ahl	17
Social Origins of Southern Senators in Congress at the Time of the Civil War	H. H. Hoyt	18
English in Seven Weeks	I. Norman Smith	21
Preparing for Our Place in World Affairs	Frank Fairbank	24
Union Propaganda in the American Civil War	George Winston Smith	26
Economics in the Curriculum	James L. Smith	33
Visual and Other Aids	Maurice P. Hunt	34
News and Comment	Morris Wolf	35
Book Reviews and Book Notes	Richard H. McFeely	39
Current Publications Received		46

THE SOCIAL STUDIES does not accept responsibility for the views expressed in articles, reviews, and other contributions which appear in its pages. It provides opportunities for publication of materials which may represent divergent ideas, judgments and opinions.

EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.

Subscription \$2.00 a year, single numbers 30 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Copyright, 1944, McKinley Publishing Co. Entered as second-class matter, October 26, 1909, at Post Office at Philadelphia, Pa., under Act of March 3, 1879.

Additional entry as second-class matter at the Post Office at Menasha, Wis. Printed in U.S.A.



—Up to the time that this magazine was
scheduled to go to press, we expected to an-
nounce in this space the January publication of

a high-school textbook

in one of the most important subjects in the
secondary-school curriculum today.

—When this book comes from the press
—in the near future— we will make the
announcement.

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY . *Publishers*

The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXV, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1944

History as a Living Force

CHRISTOPHER CRITTENDEN

State Department of Archives and History, Raleigh, North Carolina

What would George Washington think if he were suddenly to come to life today and find that he was riding in a jeep? How would Benjamin Franklin feel if he were to find himself in a flying fortress, 20,000 feet above the earth's surface? What would John Paul Jones think of one of our modern landing barges, carrying tanks and other mechanized equipment all ready to drive ashore and engage the enemy? What would be the reaction of Andrew Jackson to a tank, of Robert E. Lee to a flame thrower, or even of Teddy Roosevelt to a modern submarine?

In civil life as well as in military we have machines which would astonish past generations. How would Julius Caesar feel if he should suddenly come to life in a New York subway train? What would Anne Hathaway think of a modern kitchen, with its innumerable conveniences? What would Thomas Jefferson do if he could hear a voice speaking from Moscow, London, or Australia? How would Abraham Lincoln like to ride in an automobile, shave with an electric razor, or see a moving picture? We possess machines to do everything from sinking battleships to washing dishes, from propelling a speeding express train to clipping the hair on our necks.

When the first machines were invented, they came only at infrequent intervals. The spinning jenny, the power loom, the steam engine, and the other early inventions were spaced years apart. But these early machines begat a new and more numerous generation of machines, and this generation in turn sired

another still more numerous generation until today the earth fairly crawls with machines without number. Not merely do they constantly become more numerous, but the ratio of increase appears to rise by geometric progression. Malthus's theory of population growth has long been discredited, but had Malthus propounded his theory for the machine, rather than for the human being, he might have been correct.

Every time a new machine is put into use, it causes some modification in the way men live from day to day, in their social adjustments and relationships. When a new machine began to function only occasionally, society had a long period of time to adjust itself to each in turn. But as new inventions have crowded upon us with greater and greater frequency, we have had less and less time to make the necessary adjustments and we seem to live in a world of increasingly unstable physical surroundings. The furnishings in our homes, the clothes we wear, the vehicles in which we ride, the weapons with which we fight, all seem subject to constant change, so that what we have today is out of date tomorrow.

This state of constant change, this lack of stability of our physical surroundings, raises a horde of difficult and complex problems for the world today. Internally, each country is under the necessity of making rapid and drastic adjustments to the machine, of frequently reorganizing its social order to meet new conditions. Externally, in its relations with other

states, each country has likewise to make constant adjustments in meeting the problems of the machine age.

In this period of flux there is grave danger that the machine will run away with us—will get completely out of control. As has often been said, our knowledge of technical subjects has outrun our understanding of social and economic matters so that our social order has become out of balance. A Congressman riding on a streamlined train may subscribe to many of the economic theories of the horse-and-buggy era; a big business executive may be almost completely ignorant of many of the social changes of the past century. Unless this gap between technical knowledge and social ignorance is closed, there is grave danger that our civilization will be unable to bear the strain. And in those countries where government action rests upon public opinion, as in our own, it is essential that knowledge of these problems be in the possession not merely of the leaders but also of the masses of the people.

Within the past few decades there have developed various studies whose purpose is to bring enlightenment regarding social and economic matters—the so-called social sciences. They were predicated originally upon the idea that just as chemistry and mathematics and the other physical sciences could be founded upon certain well known scientific facts and reactions, so the social sciences—economics, sociology, history, and the others—could likewise be based upon the laws that govern society, provided only that those laws could be discovered and applied.

Thus research in these fields was conducted in order to discover such laws. While the laws proved more elusive than expected and human relationships appeared to involve limitless complexities, nevertheless a great mass of valuable data was brought to light, ready for the use of society—if society would indeed make use of it.

Among the various groups of social scientists, the historians played a leading part. Trained in German methods of careful, painstaking research, they delved into almost every conceivable subject, political, legal, religious, cultural, military, social, and economic, from the earliest periods for which information was available down to the present. They brought to light a mass of new data, carefully checked and re-checked, so that far more exact knowledge about the past was at hand than had ever been available before.

Many of the questions society must answer today are new in some ways. But for every one of them there are precedents or semi-precedents and there is not a single one about which information as to how similar questions were answered in the past would not be useful at the present time. Today, for example, our nation faces the imminent threat of inflation. It would seem obvious that one of the worst possible

developments would be an uncontrolled rise in prices, and yet there are various pressure groups and considerable sections of public opinion which, often without knowing it, are helping to bring about that very result. Wanting immediate profits for themselves, they fail to see that one price increase will probably lead to others and that the resulting inflation will seriously harm everybody. If the public were well informed as to what has happened in this field in past wars and knew that in every one of our major conflicts prices have climbed to dizzy heights, it would be much easier for the Office of Price Administration to do its job, and there would be less bickering about the matter in Congress.

Again, if we all had clearly in mind the history of the tariff in this country and abroad, if we understood what results had followed the raising or lowering of rates on various commodities, it would be much easier for our government to formulate intelligent tariff policies. If the public had an enlightened understanding of American foreign policy since 1775, our national mind would hardly be in such a muddle regarding post-war relationships.

If it is essential that the masses of the people be educated regarding the background of current problems and issues, is it not the responsibility of the historian to see that the public is so educated? The historian is the specialist in the field; he is the only one who has in this field both the information and the broad perspective which are needed. If he does not instruct the populace in his own subject, who else is competent to do so?

Can it be said, however, that at the present time the historian is failing to perform this duty? Having at hand information which is badly needed in the solution of present-day problems, is he neglecting to do his part in making this information available to the general public? Is his light hidden under a bushel, so that only a feeble glimmer leaks out through a crack?

At present professional historians use principally two methods in making their subject known to the public, teaching and writing. History is taught in the grammar schools, the high school, and the colleges and universities. And as for writing, every year professional historians turn out thousands of scholarly volumes, pamphlets, and magazine articles.

These two methods are not bad as far as they go. But I wonder whether they go far enough. Are the professional historians failing to reach the masses of the people? Are mere teaching and writing scholarly treatises enough? Are there other avenues of approach which ought to be considered?

I wonder if there is not a great deal which the trained historian can do, in addition to what he is now doing, to sell history to the public and to make history the living force that it ought to be in the

lives of the populace. I believe that use should be made of some of the channels which have been developed only recently, and also that more effective use can be made of the older channels.

No device for reaching large masses of people is more effective than the radio. From one station we can command an immediate area, from a limited network of stations we can present our case to an entire region, from a national network we can make contact with the whole nation, and by short wave we can reach the world at large. Frequent broadcasts of sound historical material, closely related to present-day problems, can have a tremendous influence upon popular sentiment and can go far to educate the public about such matters.

What can be accomplished in this field is effectively described in *Broadcasting History: The Story of the Story Behind the Headlines*, a recent *Bulletin* of the American Association for State and Local History. This article, by Mrs. Conyers Read, gives the history of the weekly broadcast of the radio committee of the American Historical Association. Believing that historical knowledge in relation to current issues should be made generally available, the committee arranged first with the Columbia Broadcasting System and later with the National Broadcasting Company to put on a weekly program. It was felt best for historians not to broadcast directly, but instead to have a broadcaster who would obtain the needed information from specialists in various fields and who would himself actually prepare and give the broadcasts. After certain preliminary work and one abortive series of broadcasts, the series began on March 8, 1938, and has been continued ever since.

What the subject each week will be, no one knows until a few days ahead, since it is necessary to wait as late as possible in order to fit in with the spot news. Once the subject is determined, there has to be fast work in getting in touch with historical specialists in the field, assembling the needed information, writing the script, and making final preparations. The result is *The Story Behind the Headlines*, heard every Sunday night with Cesar Saerchinger as broadcaster, a commentary on some phase of current events with the historical background brought in. The series has aroused nation-wide interest and has helped to bring about a better understanding of current events and issues.

The radio committee of the American Historical Association has shown the way. What is now needed is for the rest of us to follow that example so that broadcasts of this kind are multiplied many times. There is room for several additional programs over national hook-ups, and there is also a great deal of room in the local field. Suppose, to be specific, that when the next city election is held in your com-

munity, a series of radio programs were to give the history of your city elections and to tell in detail just what had been accomplished and what had failed of accomplishment by the candidates and parties seeking election.

When a change is proposed in the tax rate, suppose that a radio program were to give the history of public taxes in the city. Should a referendum be held on whether to ban John Barleycorn from our midst, the local history of this subject might be broadcast. In case a crime wave should break out, data on the history of crime and of law enforcement might be made available. By such programs a local historical group could play an active and useful part in solving the current problems of the community.

In addition to broadcasts closely connected with current problems, there might be others with less connection of the kind, arranged for the purpose of informing the public regarding their general historical background. Such a series might be given on both a national and a local scale. A series narrating the general history of a community would be particularly instructive and interesting, and if presented at a time when classes of school children could tune in, the broadcasts could form a part of the educational program of the community.

The newspapers offer a fertile field. Well authenticated historical columns, feature articles, and other contributions, written by trained historians or based upon information supplied by such historians, could have a marked influence upon popular thought and sentiment. Should a depression again descend upon the land, articles on how the problems of past depressions were met would be useful. In time of war, information on how we lived through past wars could give a broader understanding of the problems involved and simplify their solution.

Today, of course, because of the newsprint shortage, the newspapers are eliminating current features rather than adding new ones, but even at that there is room for such contributions provided they are of high quality and sufficiently pertinent. I know of one such column, launched only three months ago, which has had a reasonable measure of success. For Sunday release, the material is mailed to ten papers the preceding Monday or Tuesday in order to allow plenty of time for setting up the type before the Saturday rush. So far the column has dealt with the background of the Italian campaign, of Russian foreign policy, of the Balkan tangle, of Labor Day, of American foreign policy, and of other topics of current interest. If this can be accomplished at the present time, in spite of the obstacles in the way, it would seem that later, when the war is over and newsprint no longer scarce, the possibilities would be much greater.

The magazines offer a similar opportunity. For

every person who reads a doctoral dissertation, thousands read *The Saturday Evening Post*, *Collier's*, and other periodicals. Why, therefore, can we not prepare or have prepared articles suitable for magazines of this kind? They might be written by historians themselves—provided we can find scholars capable of preparing them—or, like the radio program of the American Historical Association, they might be based upon information supplied by historical specialists but actually prepared by persons skilled in the techniques of popularization. Prepared longer in advance than newspaper contributions, magazine articles would be more in the nature of features giving the general background of some situation, rather than commentaries on spot news.

There is also the possibility of a popular historical magazine, and it is good news that the Society of American Historians, organized several years ago, has announced that it expects to begin publishing such a magazine in January, 1945. "The conviction" of the society, says a recent statement, "was that now 140,000,000 English-speaking people of North America were ready to have a fuller interest in History. . . . The objective was to encourage the reading and writing of History, and, as a step toward this end, to set up a monthly magazine of History, scholarly in essentials, and of high literary quality, brightly written, and attractively illustrated. . . . These men [of the society] hoped to rescue historical writing from arid pedantry on the one hand, and from inaccurate popularization on the other; to bring the color, drama, and solid instruction of History home to millions to whom it had been unknown or who have ignored it; and to till new historical fields." The motto of the society is *Sic Historia Dissipabit*, which, freely translated, means: "Thus will History drive away ignorance and misunderstanding." This movement, I feel sure, will have the good wishes and support of all of us, for it can perform a great service for the American people.

Historical plays and pageants can be a potent influence. A well written and expertly presented historical play can arouse a great deal of public enthusiasm. On a national scale such plays, presented in a large city, can exert far-reaching influence, but in the local field the possibilities are perhaps even more alluring. Every community has a history worthy of dramatization, and there could hardly be a better way of making that history known. Similar to the play is the pageant, which is especially suitable for celebrating an anniversary. In all parts of the country in time of peace hundreds of historical pageants are presented. Some are of high calibre but most of them are of little value, mere stereotypes, having only a slight connection with local history and conditions. The highest type of pageant, properly planned and executed and representing a determined effort to fea-

ture local events and characters, offers fine possibilities.

Historical museums can do far more than they have yet done to make history known to the people. Already throughout the nation are hundreds of such institutions, some excellent, some indifferent, some poor. Too many of them, unfortunately, are merely static, with masses of ill-assorted items displayed behind glass—like the remains of the late lamented in a windowed coffin. The best ones, however, by frequently changing displays, by arranging special exhibits in connection with current events, by introducing more effective lighting methods, by putting on historical playlets or celebrations at appropriate times, by preparing articles for the local papers, and by other similar methods are pointing the way to what can be accomplished. There are still far too few historical museums in the country, and of those which exist only a limited number are doing really effective work.

Closely related to the museum field is the restoration, preservation, and marking of historic spots. During the past few decades a wave of interest in work of this kind has swept the country and much has been accomplished, with the National Park Service and certain state and regional organizations leading the way. As a matter of fact, however, the surface has barely been scratched, for there are still thousands of historic houses, water wheels, bridges, battlegrounds, and other historic sites which are crying out for proper attention. Such a site is something which can have great influence on the public. It is not merely vague and intangible, like the decline of the Roman Empire, but it is something which people can actually see and touch. The restoration of colonial Williamsburg is an object lesson of what can be accomplished in this field. Obviously, since we are not all Rockefellers, all of us cannot develop Williamsburgs, but every one of us can achieve more limited ends in this field.

Historic sites likewise need to be marked. A program along this line should be carefully planned so that it will be in the hands of trained historians and not under the control of chambers of commerce, ancestor worshipers, or other groups with special interests. Certain states, such as Virginia, have shown what can be accomplished, but much more remains to be done.

Likewise, the open forum can accomplish much. Discussion of current problems, with emphasis on the historical background, can arouse popular interest and inform the public regarding the various questions at issue. People like to talk and argue. If they are given a chance to do so, with intelligent guidance and with necessary information supplied, they can be educated, and can educate themselves, on a variety of topics.

Of great importance are the moving pictures. With the millions of paid admissions weekly throughout the nation, this industry has a tremendous influence upon our national life and thought. As we all know, within the past few years there have been hundreds of pictures with historical settings, ranging from those which were reasonably accurate to those which were a mere travesty on history. There would seem to be possibilities for the trained historian to work in this field in order to try to make pictures more accurate on the one hand, and on the other to have historical pictures produced which would not be produced otherwise. Obviously the moving picture industry is highly centralized and the techniques of production have been specialized and Hollywoodized to such an extent that the historian cannot simply walk in and tell the producers how it ought to be done. But by a diplomatic approach and by a concerted campaign by the proper organizations, probably something worth while could be accomplished.

It is suggested then, that professional historians make more use of the radio, newspapers, magazines, plays and pageants, museums, historic sites, the open forum, and moving pictures. In addition, it is believed that the teaching and writing of history can be made more effective. In so far as teaching is concerned, the following weaknesses may well be considered: First, the majority of students take courses only at the lower levels, and therefore do not obtain the more detailed and advanced information which is needed to solve complex problems. If practicable, a much larger proportion of students should be required to take courses in history at the higher levels.

Second, not enough connection is ordinarily shown between history and the problems of the present. It may be all very well for the medievalist in his researches to try to put himself back in the days of feudalism and completely forget all about the present, but in teaching his subject he should consider what lessons the Middle Ages hold for the man of today. I venture to say that there are plenty.

Third, not enough attention is paid to local history. It is beneficial to teach the history of the world at large, of Europe, or of the United States. Such courses broaden the outlook of the student, help him to see things in perspective. But there is need for far more attention to local history, and no community ought to be without such a course in its schools. Every child should be taught the background of the locality in which he lives—the history of the Presbyterian Church at Second and Oak Streets, the story of the old mill just outside the town limits, the history of the local banks, and many other subjects. Each child should be told about the ideals of his local ancestors, lineal or spiritual, their religious beliefs, their interests, their culture. Such teaching, if not merely of an antiquarian nature but ably con-

ceived and carried out, will bring about a better appreciation of what the community stands for and will make for a more intelligent facing of current local problems.

Fourth, in the more advanced courses and especially in the graduate schools the purpose of teaching history frequently seems to be not so much to give information which will be useful in making adjustments to life today as merely to teach others how to teach. The objectives of such courses might well be re-considered.

With regard to writing, there is much that the scholarly historian can do and ought to do. First, in the training of a historian, much more emphasis should be placed upon fine, artistic writing. Departments of history might well make arrangements for their graduate students to take courses in English or journalism, with the deliberate purpose of developing an attractive style. And term papers, thesis, and other writings of graduate students might be graded upon the basis of good writing much more strictly than at present. Second, students should not be required to include so much scholarly impedimenta in their writings. Much of the graduate school technique needs to be discarded, both in the graduate school and afterward. Of course we do not want research to be any less careful or less thorough, but there is no use being so obvious about it. A modern Ph.D. thesis, with innumerable footnotes and all the other evidences of so-called scholarship, is often like a skyscraper so constructed that the steel framework projects that everyone may see how strong the building is. Of course we want the skyscraper strong and we want the dissertation thorough, but we don't want to see the framework of either too clearly. Third, the graduate student should be taught that as a scholar who has at his disposal information of pertinent value in solving the problems of today, he has a real responsibility in helping meet those problems. He should be encouraged not to become a mere bookworm, not to shut himself off from the masses of the people, but instead to mix with and to know all people, to make himself a leader in the life of his community.

In the program which I have attempted to outline, I have been speaking primarily to the professional historian. I do not wish for a minute to underrate the work and accomplishments of the amateurs in the field, for many of them are talented and influential. Much of the best historical writing today is being done by persons without professional historical training—what an indictment of that training! No, I realize that the amateurs are accomplishing a great deal, but I am thinking now of the professional.

Am I asking too much? Are the professional historians already so busy that they have not time for additional duties or activities? Am I, by proposing

that we assume a greater responsibility in meeting current problems, merely suggesting the impossible?

I do not think so. Of course we are all busy and there is a limit to what anyone can do. But much of what I suggest will require no additional time or effort. It won't be any harder to teach history along the lines proposed than in the present way, once the change has been made. And as for writing, how much easier it would be to leave out most of the footnotes. The radio, newspapers, magazine articles, plays and pageants, museums, the care of historic sites, the open forum, and moving pictures—these can receive as much or as little time and attention as we may be able to give them. I am merely suggesting that we professional historians take a new interest in such things and show our willingness to cooperate with people who are actively concerned with them.

I am not urging so much that we historians work harder or take on new duties (although that would not hurt some of us) as that we look on our place in society in a new light, that we accept greater responsibility in meeting the baffling problems of the world today. We are fortunate in living in a free country, where investigation and teaching and writing are uncensored and subject to very little restriction. Our professional group has enjoyed a great and, historically, a rare privilege. But I wonder if we have not been too ready to accept the privilege without shouldering the responsibility. History can and ought to play a vital part in meeting the issues of our rapidly changing, complex world. It is the responsibility of professional historians to see that it plays a vital part.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

RALPH B. GUINNESS

Franklin K. Lane High School, Brooklyn, New York

BRADDOCK'S DEFEAT¹

Would the current critics of the teaching of American history include or omit the story of Braddock's defeat? Would they omit it as trivial? If not, which account would they teach: the conventional one or the newly revised one of Pargellis? Or would they teach both in order to demonstrate the meaning of objectivity and historical-mindedness and the difference between memorization and interpretation of history?

The conventional account is well known by teachers and for a long time was taught in the elementary schools. Braddock suffered a disastrous defeat because stupid and stubborn British leaders contrary to backwoodsman advice marched their men into the wilderness as if on parade. The soldiers became panic-stricken and could not be controlled by their leaders.

Pargellis on the other hand shows the defeat to have been due, not to panic-stricken soldiers or to stupid use of dress parade tactics, but to the failure of the leaders to use and follow the fundamental rules of warfare laid down in the best European manuals of the art of war. Braddock and his staff messed up their formations and never gave their soldiers a chance to demonstrate that Old World methods, properly applied, might have won the day. In telling his story Pargellis shows that some of the

original source accounts have been neglected by historians, chiefly because they were suppressed by the War Office, and that those which they used were unreliable. If both accounts were presented, an excellent lesson could be taught on the proper use of sources and the writing and teaching of history.

There were eight official reports of the defeat. Three of them have been used previously in the conventional accounts. Their authors were unreliable as they were biased since they were engaged in intrigues for promotion. Captain Robert Orme, Braddock's aide-de-camp, wrote the official story, blaming the defeat on the cowardice of the soldiers, driven into panic when the vanguard fell back upon the main body. This was given publicity by the War Office. Washington's account is unreliable as he had little chance to observe the campaign since for all but three weeks of it he was ill or on detached service. Adam Stephens, backwoodsman, stationed with the rear-guard, testified that the way to fight Indians was to use their tactics. General Gage in charge of the vanguard placed the blame on these soldiers, declaring that they became panic-stricken. The authors of four other accounts, not previously used, give a different story. Three—St. Clair, Gordon and Gates—were in the advanced detachment. The fourth is anonymous, evidently written by a friend of St. Clair's stationed fifty miles in the rear. His account is based on St. Clair's off-the-record comments and those of minor participants in the action.

¹ Sidney Pargellis, "Braddock's Defeat," *American Historical Review*, XLI (January, 1936), 253-269.

All witnesses agree that Braddock's force of about 1,300 men, properly divided, except for improper column alignment, was crowded one upon the other. About 300 regulars were in the vanguard. Then came a road-making party of 200 regulars and Virginians. Then the main body of 700, with fifty of them serving as the general's guard and 200 of them as flankers on each side a hundred yards distant. The remaining troops marched on either side of the wagons and artillery, while a rearguard of 100 Virginians followed twenty yards behind. They marched up a small incline, prior to the attack, an incline so open that carriages could have been driven through the woods.

When first attacked it was said that the vanguard fell back in confusion. But officers of the vanguard in an "advertisement" in a September 1755 issue of the *Pennsylvania Gazette* said the main body already was in confusion. Gates and Gordon said the officers in charge failed to form their men in line but kept them in column whereby they were easily outflanked. Owing to their marching in double columns, crowded together, impeded by wagons in their center it was tactically impossible to form platoons or lines. They were marching in a formation in violation of fundamental tactics of war. Moreover, the officers lost their heads. Accepted military precautions against ambush could not be employed. Braddock also neglected to occupy a hill on his right before his force approached it, and did not do so even after the attack had begun. On the march on previous days such hills had been occupied and the army had passed in safety. On the fatal day, July 9, Braddock inexcusably neglected the fundamentals of the European art of war in this respect and in others. He had too little space between parts of the army; inadequate flanking parties; the main body, divided by a column of wagons, had its mobility decreased; it advanced ignorant of the land and conditions ahead.

On previous days the fundamental rules of war had been scrupulously observed. Precautions against surprise were taken in the dangerous double crossing of the Monongahela. Montrecour, the French commander, in a letter to Vaudreuil, July 14, 1755, said all other efforts at surprise attacks had failed because the British were always on guard. On the fatal day, the British were about to make camp in preparation for the next day's planned attack on Fort Duquesne. Fundamental European rules thus had not previously brought defeat to the British. Failure to use them when most needed did bring defeat.

These facts were covered up at first by friends of Braddock in their reports to the home office. Orme, Burton, Roger Morris and Dobson wished to enhance their prestige and bolster their hopes of promotion which a successful expedition had promised.

They therefore blamed the defeat on the soldiers, not on their and Braddock's leadership. However, the home office seems to have seen through their incompetency and unreliable testimony. The affair was whitewashed to save the prestige of the army corps of officers, but Orme and his friends were not promoted. Within a few months non-members of the Braddock-Orme clique, St. Clair, Gage, Dunbar, Chapman and Rutherford received new commissions.

TRANSPORTATION OF CONVICTS TO AMERICA²

After an act of Parliament in 1718 convicts were regularly transported from Britain to America as Sollers, Bruce and Butler have well established. However, the practice had been carried on regularly on a minor scale during the seventeenth century. Beginning in 1615 they were transported as a condition for reprieve for felonies, at that time punishable by death. Three hundred crimes in the seventeenth century were felonies carrying the death sentence. From 1615-1655 approximately twenty-five to sixty reprieved convicts were so transported. From 1655-1699 the Patent Rolls list 4,431 persons pardoned for transportation, but not all were transported.

Merchants in the West Indies, Maryland and Virginia requested the shipment of convicts, paying certain fees to English sheriffs for their delivery after the king had pardoned them. Those who imported convicts to Maryland and Virginia received headrights, or land grants, for each of the transported convicts. For example, one Captain Benny Eaton, according to the Maryland Land Books, on May 22, 1674, received 2,450 acres of land for transporting forty-nine persons, thirty-five of whom according to the Patent Rolls came from Newgate Prison.

These convicts were felons guilty of thievery. They were not political prisoners. Nor had they committed crimes merely to be transported, as they could easily have volunteered themselves as indentured servants to secure transportation. When transported they were usually exiled for seven years. Thereafter they would have the same rights vouchsafed to any servant in the New World. This seventeenth century practice was slow in developing as merchants and government officials were obliged to observe many legal technicalities to preserve the rights of criminals. None according to Blackstone could be transported save as a choice to escape capital punishment, or by express act of Parliament. The common law did not provide for exile and transportation as punishment. With the exception of two such acts, 1666 and 1670, no felons were transported to America in the seventeenth century by reason of a legal sentence.

² Abbot Emerson Smith, "The Transportation of Convicts to the American Colonies in the Seventeenth Century," *American Historical Review*, XXXIX (January, 1934), 232-249.

Making Pupils Like History

E. PEARLE SCRIVEN

Benson High School, Omaha, Nebraska

In these days when the stress of war is causing the study of the social studies to be minimized, and when the requirements have been lessened and consequently fewer teachers are provided, it is up to those of us who are left to vitalize the presentation of history so that it will better accomplish its basic purpose: the creation of enlightened, clear-seeing, appreciative citizens of a democracy. Besides this, teachers must produce enthusiastic supporters for this subject, both among the student body and in the community, in order that its influence as an elective will spread almost as far as when it was a required subject. The future success of our country needs it. How much hangs in the balance! For in the critical post-war period this nation can so easily be dragged to depths it has never known, or it can be guided into paths of greater progress.

And it is the pupils sitting in our classrooms today who will do the guiding. Was ever a greater challenge given to teachers! How much these future citizens will need the benefits that a knowledge of history will give them.

One change I have made in the teaching of history has made my work much more popular, aroused an interest, and secured results far ahead of anything I ever got before.

Of the 2,250 pupils who have come to my history classes during the last six years, less than a half liked history. You who are teaching history know that this is nothing unusual. It represents about the general popularity of that subject. This is bad, especially now, when the fate of democracy hangs in the balance.

We know that the intelligent interest of our people in social and political subjects will largely determine our future. We also know that those who hate history in school will shun it ever after. Those who like it will be apt to follow their interest through life. Can we afford to allow half of our pupils to hate it?

Do your pupils like world history, at least 90 per cent of them? If not, you can make one change in your presentation that will produce marvelous results—at least it has for me and it has lasted now for several years. I used to hear: "Why study history, just the old dead past? What do I care about that? I want to know about the present. That's all I'm interested in!" So today we learn about "the present" first and the pupils become so much interested in it that they are not only willing but glad to go back and find out how "the present" came to be. In

other words, we take the last unit first—"The World Today," or "The World in a Ferment," as one author calls it. I call it: "The Enemies of Democracy—Communism, Fascism, Nazism." Then we go back to the first unit and take each in its chronological order down to the present. But in each case we focus our attention upon the present, and the part each has played in developing it.

The change that this has brought in the attitude of the pupils and the atmosphere of the class is greater than figures can show. The improvement was so apparent after a two years' trial I began to tabulate results—so the figures I have been keeping for the past six years show something. At the end of the course each pupil on unsigned mimeographed papers answered twenty-eight attitude questions. Altogether 97.3 per cent stated that history was not a useless study of the old dead past and 91 per cent liked history better than when they entered the class. The other answers indicate results equally satisfactory.

You can do this as well as I. The fact that the textbook does not use this approach will present no difficulty, for you pick out the high lights of each period and make them so clear that they illuminate the whole period. Leave it to the textbook to group other facts around them. Some pupils will get more of these than others, but all must not only learn but remember the high lights.

Totalitarianism challenging democracy is the most fundamental influence of this the latest period in the history of the world. Hence a study of communism, fascism, and nazism, their basic principles, the conditions that brought them into each country and their influence upon democracy and its future. These subjects have a very strong appeal. The pupils have heard of them but they don't exactly know what each stands for, how they are alike, how they differ and what methods are being used to introduce them in our own country.

Our first topic is communism. All preliminary preparations have been made and instructions given, as to the requirements of the course. Each pupil is supplied with a textbook, notebook and pen.

In these topics especially, and usually with any subject I give them the information first, in words they understand and with enough explanation to arouse their interest and make it clear. Then I send them to the textbooks or other sources to get it themselves. They know then what they are looking for and they understand it when they find it. Otherwise they get very little, especially on these topics that

seem to be made so vague by words. When they try to get it for themselves first, they realize they don't understand it and the reaction follows: "I hate this old stuff anyway." Each time you ask pupils to get information they do not care about and do not understand, you are laying another plank of prejudice that finally grows into a wall of hatred for history.

But perhaps the organization of the classes is making it impossible for you to give them any material. You are anxious to get them to work. You want to capitalize on their fresh enthusiasm for the new semester and the new subject. Tell them that the first subject is communism and that they are to find in newspapers or magazines as much as they can on communism, and on Russia. Also, since we are to take up fascism and nazism soon, ask them to clip anything good that would help them later on those topics and put them away until needed.

So we are ready to begin. Their notebooks are open and they take this dictation:

The three basic principles of communism are:

1. Capitalism must be overthrown.
2. There must be no private ownership of wealth.
3. There must be only one social class—the proletariat.

Then follows the explanation of each upon which the pupils may take notes—not dictation.

Now send them to their books. When they find these same facts they understand them even though they are given differently. They are so pleased to find what they now see is the same thing they have heard in class. To them it is like meeting an old friend. They know they have learned something. They understand it. It is what they want to know—about what is here today. This brings pleasure and satisfaction. They want more.

Personally I prefer to have them use different authors—to get acquainted with them and to know which they prefer. Their textbooks are chiefly to make sure all have an opportunity to find material.

The newspapers give them more material. So, as soon as the bell rings the next day their hands are up. I am looking after the beginning classroom procedure, but they see I am keenly listening to what they are saying. They like that and especially if they can tell me things I have not seen or heard. If what they say causes me to add more, it is important! They have benefited the class. They are proud of themselves. This continues to be just the way our class periods open. It is really current events. Nothing is ever said about what shall or shall not be given. They tell only what more they have found on some subject we have taken up in class. They carry it no farther. No irrelevant facts are mentioned unless it is with a justifiable explanation. So their thoughts are not scattered but centered on the topics we are emphasizing. But we do not call it "Current Events." It is not

a requirement, only the spontaneous outlet of their interest and enthusiasm.

Each pupil is held responsible for knowing what he hears in class. Hence all take notes and in the preparation period each one writes up these notes. Then we take up fascism and nazism following the same general plan.

In the background of fascism we mention the formation of the United Kingdom of Italy after being divided for a thousand years.

Will it be easy for the people of a country divided for a thousand years to work efficiently together?

Other difficulties: Italy as a country, its deficiencies, the density of its population compared with the United States, are discussed.

In studying Germany we mention the Franco-Prussian war and Germany's ambition for expansion. But we really begin with 1918—Germany defeated in World War I—Blamed by the Allies for having brought it on—Colonies taken from her—A new government organized—Terrible hardships in Germany as well as in the other European countries after four years of war. The study of the Versailles Treaty will not come until we take up World War I toward the close of the year. After finishing all three topics we take the questions:

1. How are totalitarian governments all alike?
2. How does communism differ from fascism?
3. What have all lost that we have?

This takes a month, about the same time as the last unit.

It is now when the pupils are in an enthusiastic frame of mind that we take up the ancient past. But new reports of later developments in our present-day topics continue to come in. Frequently some report they bring leads us to our subjects of the ancient past. If not, we find some event of interest with which to introduce it. The relation of the past to the present is so apparent that their enthusiasm carries over and leads them willingly to the ancient tombs which still remain on the edge of the desert where Rommel's troops were trying to break the resistance of the British in order to seize control of the Suez Canal. Thus these ancient tombs which the pupils themselves may some time see become a part of the present.

As a result of this procedure the interest of the pupils is aroused. They are learning what they wish, and what they see is affecting them now and may affect them still more. They go to the newspapers, magazines and books at home and in the libraries, and their efforts are rewarded. So satisfaction and pleasure result. They are getting what they want and they can find what they look for. It is reflected in their faces as they leave the class and it is apparent as they re-enter. They can hardly wait for the class to begin, for they want to tell what more they have

found. Their enthusiasm is aroused to such an extent that the unresponsive are entertained by it and before long, they too, usually join in the activities.

Another thing which I believe makes the pupils like history better is the fact that I make it a rule in class to call only on the pupils who volunteer. That keeps things moving. It keeps interest from lagging. It does away with those useless embarrassing situations when the time of the whole class is wasted, the continuity of thought is broken while one poor soul who can't answer recoils from the humiliating attention that is focused upon him. He is left more sure that he doesn't know anything, and hates the "old stuff" anyway. In other words his pride is wounded. His self confidence is shattered.

All may volunteer, but each one knows that he gets credit only for what he does. The atmosphere of fear is removed from the room. With this gone the timid ones feel less timid. They become interested. They begin to enjoy what others are doing. Then they want to take part too. They want to be like the others and they want the credit too. When they feel sure they can answer, they volunteer. That hand of course is always recognized immediately and that answer given some appreciation. That answer, I say, not that individual. Take it as a matter of fact that he recited like the others, as you expected. Their credits they may all see whenever they wish. They see theirs along with the rest of the class—one credit for each activity. If they can't get credits by reciting in class, they must find another way. I'll offer suggestions if they will come to me. But no credits mean no grades and no passing. I also have them turn in reports of their outside work or activities. These add to their credits.

By the end of the year other results are evident. They have formed a habit of searching the newspapers for news. In their attitude test 98 per cent say that they read the newspapers more, 66 per cent read magazines more and 35 per cent read books more. This newspaper habit cannot be created by teaching history chronologically, for so little is found in newspapers pertaining to past events that their time is wasted; they are discouraged and they don't return. Even the report of an occasional current event doesn't create the news-hunting habit.

They have done much more work than ever before—done this extra work voluntarily because they wanted to, not because they had to.

This has kept them more receptive in class. In fact it has created the desirable atmosphere of the class that can not be expressed by figures.

The most important part of the course has thus been reviewed and reimpresed throughout the entire year. For all admit that an understanding and awareness of the enemies of democracy is more important to the future of these pupils and their country than

anything else in world history. Yet this last unit, is usually taken up at the end of the year when the energies both of the teacher and pupils are lagging, when no one cares much about anything except that it is hot, and when all are tired and hope that it will soon be over. Now with us it comes first and for a year it has been impressed and reimpresed. To know about the enemies of democracy will make pupils much better citizens for a democracy than to know about prehistoric man.

A greater appreciation for democracy has been created. This is not the "flag waving" kind, but one that comes from an intelligent understanding. For a year they have been comparing totalitarian principles with those of democracy and hearing illustrations of the application of those principles brought to class by their classmates, not by the teacher. For a year they have been comparing the other types of government and their influence upon the masses with life here as they know it today. They have formed intelligent conclusions that democracy is the best. Conclusions coming at this age and in this way will not easily be changed. In the attitude test to the question: "Do you appreciate democracy more than when you entered this class? Generally, 99 per cent say, "Yes." The others usually say: "No—I always have appreciated it."

To the question: "Do you think you have learned in this course things that might help you save democracy?" There was less optimism last year, only 85 per cent, while the year before it was 90 per cent who said "Yes."

What benefits pupils also benefits teachers! I have noticed marked improvements:

The problem of discipline has disappeared. The interest in the subject, the attitude of the pupils, and the standards of the school are enough to care for that.

The teacher enjoys her work and is inspired by the enthusiasm of these young people. The burden of responsibility is replaced by pleasure and anticipation.

The pupils appreciate the teacher more because of their enjoyment in getting what they want; and their friendship is apparent in every contact with them.

The parents more frequently express their appreciation individually. They tell how much history they are learning at their dinner tables. In group meetings they thank you for their children's excellent understanding of these topics—the enemies of democracy.

The "carry over" is also gratifying. The pupils use this historical material in their other school work. They use it for reports, themes, essays, public speaking and in debates, in their young people's organizations, in churches and elsewhere. They come to the teacher for suggestions and advice.

General George C. Marshall¹

JOHN R. CRAF

Stanford University, Stanford University, California

September 1, 1939, is a momentous day in world history. It marked the advance of German armies into Poland and the beginning of World War II. It also marked the appointment of George C. Marshall to the office of Chief of Staff, with the rank of general.

It was less than a year later that America, stunned by the fall of France and the Low Countries, turned to its new military chief. The nation, realizing for the first time the power of German military might, began to realize the necessity for the enlargement and mechanization of the American Army, then woefully meager in both men and matériel.

With only a small regular army to command, the new Chief of Staff assumed the duties and responsibilities of his office on September 1, 1939, with vigor and determination. Popular with members of the military profession, although President Roosevelt had advanced him on July 1, 1939, over thirty senior officers to the position of Acting Chief of Staff, Marshall impressed his associates with his ability to handle an army growing in size and complexity.

The great grand-nephew of the famous Chief Justice John Marshall and the son of a well-to-do fuel merchant of Uniontown, Pennsylvania, George Marshall inherited the attributes of a successful businessman as well as those of a military leader. Born at Uniontown, Pennsylvania, on December 31, 1880, son of Laura (Bradford) and George Catlett Marshall, the future general spent his early boyhood in Pennsylvania.

After vainly trying for an appointment to West Point, young Marshall entered Virginia Military Institute at Lexington, Virginia, in 1897. Although his older brother had attended the Virginia Military Institute, Marshall was not familiar with military routines, and shortly after entrance, was placed in the "awkward squad." The faculty of the Institute did not look with great favor upon the future general during his first year at the school, but after a mediocre start, Marshall forged rapidly to the foreground and upon graduation in 1901 had attained an outstanding scholastic record. The honor of All-Southern football tackle also fell to the twenty-one year old youth. Upon graduation, the government granted him a commission as second lieutenant of infantry.

The year following graduation, the lieutenant married Elizabeth Carter Coles of Lexington, Vir-

ginia, and left shortly thereafter for a year's tour of duty with the Thirtieth Infantry in the Philippines.

As was customary for officers of the regular army, young Marshall was changed from assignment to assignment during his early years with the army in order to gain experience and to work in varying climates and in different types of terrain.

In 1907 he graduated from the Infantry-Cavalry School and the following year completed the officers' course at the Army Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. This institution, now known as the Command and Staff School, is the most difficult of all the army schools. From 1908 to 1910, Marshall taught tactics there and by 1913 had returned to the Philippine Islands.

In addition to acquiring knowledge and experience at the Army Staff College and in the field, Marshall also served at a businessmen's training camp at Salt Lake City, Utah. Upon completion of that particular tour of duty, his commanding officer, General Johnson Hagood, stated: "This officer [Marshall] is well qualified to command a division, with the rank of major general, in time of war, and I would like very much to serve under his command."

While on duty near Manila, shortly before the outbreak of hostilities in Europe, Marshall showed in the field the leadership and executive ability which was to make him America's outstanding military leader. On maneuvers, the Chief of Staff suddenly became ill and Lieutenant Marshall assumed command of the defensive forces. His field orders to the officers and troops gained him the outstanding compliment from General Bell that: "This lieutenant is one of those rare men who live and dream in their profession—a soldier who is not satisfied with daily duty superbly done. He looks forward to the time when he himself may bear the responsibility of high command, and he makes sure that he will be prepared to assume it. Keep your eye on George Marshall. He is the greatest military genius of America since Stonewall Jackson."

World War I found Marshall a captain and a member of the general staff of the First Division. A participant in the battles of Cantigny, Aisne-Marne, and St. Mihiel, he slowly advanced to the rank of colonel, and on August 10, 1918, when General Pershing formed his American Army as a separate operational unit, Marshall went to duty in army headquarters to assist in the preparation of battle plans. Shortly thereafter, he was transferred to the First

¹ This is the second in a series of articles on contemporary military leaders of the United States. (Ed.)

Army and became that Army's Chief of Operations.

Credited by the British with performing one of the finest pieces of operational work when he transferred a large part of the American Army from St. Mihiel to Meuse-Argonne, Marshall took the Germans by surprise and the Meuse-Argonne offensive climaxed the fighting in World War I.

General Pershing has given Marshall complete credit for the job and has described the transfer as stupendous. The work was accomplished in fourteen days and involved nearly 1,000,000 men, 40,000 tons of ammunition, 93,000 horses, thirty-four hospitals, and eighty-seven depots. All this was completed without a single German aviator discovering the movement.

Marshall eventually rose to the rank of brigadier general in World War I, but with the signing of the Armistice and his return to the states, he reverted to his pre-war permanent rank of captain.

Based upon achievement, George Marshall should have gone down in history as one of the great generals of World War I. Because army promotions were relatively slow, he waited twenty years for the just recognition due him. His organizational and administrative ability was, however, recognized by the American public, and shortly after the termination of hostilities, the president of a large American corporation remarked: "A man with an organizational brain like his [Marshall's] would be worth \$20,000 a year. I'd like to see him and make him an offer." When informed of the remark, Marshall replied: "I am a soldier. My country trained me as a soldier. There is not much advancement ahead. I'll stick to the service."

Marshall served as aide-de-camp to General John J. Pershing from 1919 to 1924 and served in China from 1924 to 1927. Returning to the states, he served for several months as an instructor at the Army War College and went to Fort Benning, Georgia, late in 1927 as assistant commandant of the Infantry School. Following this tour of duty, Marshall commanded the Eighth Infantry Regiment and, from 1933 to 1936, served as senior instructor in the Illinois National Guard.

During this seventeen year period, promotion did not come rapidly and it was not until his assignment in 1936 to command the Fifth Brigade that he reached the permanent rank of brigadier general.

America, dedicated meanwhile to strict neutrality and the desire to forestall entanglement in European affairs, lay dormant as the Axis powers of Europe prepared for war. Those within the War Department and the Army unable to arouse the nation from its apathy, took what steps were possible under existing law to prepare to defend the nation from attack. Congress, reluctant to expend funds for the procurement of arms, munitions, and ships, awoke to the

grave danger facing the United States only after the invasion of France and the Low Countries.

General Craig, aware of the implication of appeasements and negotiations in the capitals of Europe under the auspices of Daladier of France, Chamberlain of England, and Hitler and Mussolini of Germany and Italy began to gather key men in Washington. Marshall was called upon to serve as chief of the War Plans Division of the general staff from July to October, 1938, and became Deputy Chief of Staff in October, 1938.

The Munich pact, signed in 1938, climaxed a series of events which gave ruthless powers the opportunity to commit wanton acts of cruelty on peoples who were in the main capable only of limited defense.

The Japanese attack on Manchukuo in 1931 initiated this series of events which eight years later resulted in World War II. Democratic nations, in the throes of an extensive economic depression, protested vigorously to the Japanese government but took no militant action. The United States refused to recognize the puppet state, and while Secretary Stimson advocated action against the government of Japan, nothing was done.

Two years later, Japan, continuing her aggressive tactics, seized the province of Jehol in China. Again the democratic countries protested but took no definite action. Italy, now totally fascist and rapidly becoming aware of the fact that England, France, the United States, and Russia would take no definite steps against aggressors, undertook in 1934 the conquest of Ethiopia. This aggression resulted in the application of economic sanctions by the League of Nations and Italy eventually withdrew from the League.

The years 1936 and 1937 were eventful ones in the trend toward war. Italy finally succeeded in conquering Ethiopia in 1936, and civil war in Spain broke out the same year. The aggressive axis powers kept up their unharassed march and continued to seize whatsoever they desired, and the Versailles Treaty was defied by German occupation of the Rhineland.

The year 1937 witnessed Hitler's renunciation of the Versailles Treaty and in July heavy fighting broke out between Japan and China. Japan sunk the *U. S. S. Panay* and only by her apology to the American government and the payment of an indemnity was serious American-Japanese trouble averted.

While tension in Europe mounted almost to the breaking point, General Marshall visited South America, during May and June of 1939, and exchanged views with the military leaders of the South American countries. He inspected the Natal section of Brazil, which lies only 1,800 miles from Dakar, Africa, and from which an attack on the western hemisphere was considered likely in the event of war.

Upon return from the Latin American republics, the Pennsylvanian assumed the duties of the office of Acting Chief of Staff, and, upon the retirement of General Craig, Marshall was elevated to the post of Chief of Staff with the rank of general.

During the years of military duty at home and throughout the world, Marshall has enjoyed a happy family life although events often separated him from his family. Elizabeth Carter Coles, whom Marshall married in 1902 and who died in 1927 bore him three children: Molly Pender, Clifton Stevenson, and Allen Tupper. Three years following the death of his first wife, Marshall married Katherine Boyce Tupper Brown of Baltimore, Maryland, who maintains, despite war conditions, a comfortable home for him at Fort Myer, Virginia.

When General Marshall assumed the office of Chief of Staff, his army consisted of 174,000 enlisted men scattered over 130 posts, camps, and stations. Ill-equipped with arms, lacking in motor transportation, with little or no air support, the American Army would have been hard pressed to successfully repel an invasion of the Western Hemisphere. Today, with 8,000,000 under arms, with the finest equipment in the world, and with an air force second to none, this same army is already on the offensive with the United Nations. Fighting as it is on many fronts, this Army stands as a tribute to one of the greatest military geni of all times.

After the outbreak of war in Europe, the Chief of Staff advocated the enactment of the Selective Training and Service Act in order that the nation might have large numbers of trained men to serve in time of war. Less than a year later, with the nation in a

state of grave emergency during 1941 when the German armies ran rampant in Europe, Marshall appeared before Congress and successfully urged the extension of the one-year training period required of men inducted into the armed forces. Readiness to fight to defend America was the basis of Marshall's argument; preparedness is essential to existence. He stated: "When and where these forces are to serve are questions to be determined by their Commander in Chief, and the Congress should not be confused with the problem of their readiness for service."

While General Marshall's life has been dedicated to the military service of this country, he has maintained an active interest in other activities, particularly tennis and horse-back riding. The Marshalls, during peaceful years, frequently visited Fire Island, New York, where they own a summer home and there enjoyed the surf fishing. The general is a member of Kappa Alpha fraternity, several Army and Navy Clubs, and attends the Episcopal Church.

His scholarly achievements have been recognized by awards to him of honorary degrees from William and Mary College, Trinity College of Connecticut, Pennsylvania Military College, and Washington and Jefferson College. Numerous governments, including America, have recognized his military achievements. For outstanding work in World War I, Marshall received awards from France, Italy, Montenegro, Panama, and Brazil as well as many decorations from his own government. His awards for World War II will be more numerous and it is he who will possibly lead the invasion of Europe from England.

Teaching the Use of the Library

KATHERYNE BAUGH

Chillicothe High School, Chillicothe, Missouri

Many social studies teachers take for granted that their students have acquired skill in using the facilities of the school library. However, unless they have been given specific instruction, followed by many opportunities for practicing the skills, students are likely to be ignorant of the possibilities. This description presents a plan followed in attempting to show sophomore world history students how they might use the sources of information in our library.

The classes assembled in the reading room of the library instead of the classroom. A mimeographed worksheet was given each student. This contained directions for using the dictionary, atlas, encyclopaedias, the *Building America* set, *Readers' Guide to*

Periodical Literature, and card index. Space was left on the sheet for filling in the information requested.

In order to avoid the possibility that too many would try to use the dictionary, encyclopaedias, or atlas simultaneously, each class was divided into groups of four or five students. Each group was directed to begin with a different part of the worksheet. Since some students worked much more rapidly than others, it was necessary to permit each to proceed at his own rate of speed. Three of the most capable students in each class were selected to assist in showing the members how to use the encyclopaedias, atlas, and *Readers' Guide*. These had reported to the library

after school on the previous day to make sure that they understood what they were to do. The librarian agreed to explain the card index and show students how to find the book desired in the stacks.

During the second meeting of the class in the library, as each member completed the assignment, he was directed to call at the desk for one of the magazines he had found listed on his topic in the *Readers' Guide*. After he had read the article, he handed in a brief summary of it. Further opportunities for putting into practice the knowledge gained concerning the use of the library were given to the classes at various times during the year. They were taken to the reading room with specific assignments in connection with the regular work. Also, small groups were permitted to leave the class for finding the materials available on a new unit by using the *Readers' Guide* and card index.

No systematic attempt was made to evaluate the result of this procedure. However, observation of particular students revealed some interesting information. Many were surprised to learn how the use of the card index made it possible to find the desired book in the stacks. One boy who had shown indifference in class became quite excited when he discovered a technical book on chemistry and was told he could check it out. Many remarked that they did not know we had such interesting books as the *Building America* set. They asked that the atlas be brought to the classroom and enjoyed testing each other's ability to locate places. However, too infrequently some student presented to the class information gained through using the encyclopaedias or *Readers' Guide*. Perhaps some systematic practice in using the library facilities during the junior and senior years may bring about greater achievement. Ninety-eight per cent of the students in unsigned answers stated yes to the question: "Do you think that the periods we spent in the library were helpful?"

The guide sheet given to each student contained the following directions with space left for filling in the answers:

HOW TO USE THE LIBRARY

This is an attempt to assist you in taking better advantage of our library by learning what sources of information can be found there and how to use them.

- I. *Dictionary*.—State below six types of information you can get from a large dictionary. Give an example of each:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.

II. *Encyclopaedias*.

1. What four encyclopaedias do we have in the library reading room?
 - A.
 - B.
 - C.
 - D.
2. Select a topic and look for it in two encyclopaedias; state the topic, volumes and pages on which you found it.
 - A.
 - B.

III. Look at several volumes of the *Building America* set. On the back of this sheet write a short paragraph in which you tell what these books are like.

IV. *Atlas*.—Have the assistant show you how to use the large Atlas. Then try to locate a town in the United States and one in some other part of the world. Below state the town and the figures and letters used in locating them.

- 1.
- 2.

V. *Magazines*.—Look through the magazines on the rack and below write the names of ten which discuss present day problems of the United States and the world:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.
- 9.
- 10.

VI. *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*.—Have the assistant show you how to use the *Readers' Guide*. Then look for articles about the topic you have chosen. Below state the names of three magazines, dates, and pages which you find listed on the topic.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

VII. When everyone in your group is ready, go to the librarian. She will show you how to use the *Card Index* and the stacks. When she has finished, look for a card about the topics in numbers II and VI. Do we have a book in our library about one or both? Yes or No?

Australia's Role in the World Conflict

FRANCES NORENE AHL

Glendale High School, Glendale, California

With the tragic episode at Pearl Harbor and Japan's rapid successes in the South Pacific, Australia acquired new importance in the world conflict. The fall of Singapore and of Batavia carried the enemy to her very doors. The invasion of the island continent began on January 23, 1942, with the occupation of Rabaul and the attacks on New Guinea. The bombing of Darwin on February 19, 1942, brought the war directly to the Commonwealth.

Australia faced a grim race against time. There were the vast distances of the Pacific, and of the Atlantic and Indian oceans, as well as those within the country itself. It is more than 6,000 miles from San Francisco to Sydney; nearly 12,000 miles from Liverpool to Fremantle. Darwin is several thousand miles from the main centers of population that fringe the southeastern coast. In addition to the problem of vast distances to be traversed in the movement of troops or supplies, the country faced a paucity of internal communications.

How could a population less than that of the city of New York defend an area as great as that of the United States; a coastline of some 12,000 miles?

At one time Australia's defenses were so weak that plans actually included the abandonment of a large portion of the island continent to the Nipponese. Order was given that all children, twelve years of age and over, in the schools throughout the land should be trained in the weapons of defense.

The United Nations knew that so long as Australia held out Japan's position in the islands to the north could never be secure. Thus the Commonwealth's first assignment was to defend itself until an offensive striking power could be developed there.

Prime Minister Curtin sounded the keynote when he said: "Everything we have, everything which belongs to us, must now be mobilized for the Battle of Australia."

That is exactly what the island continent has done. Every man, every resource has been rallied in an all-out effort.

Today some 820,000 Australians are in the armed services. Approximately 70 per cent of the country's employable population is either serving in the armed forces or engaged in the war industries or other tasks vital to the nation's supreme endeavor.

Australia faces a problem of rural manpower not unlike our own. In haste to build up her armed forces and speed up war production she, too, called more from farm and pastoral labor than her food front could withstand. Increased demands have been

placed upon her due to the greater spending power of her civilian population, the needs of the fighting forces in her midst and her desire to meet her overseas food commitments.

Women and children have made a noble effort to carry on, tilling the fields and tending the flocks. A Woman's Land Army has been recruited. The Women's Auxiliary Training League prepares women to take over farms, releasing men for service in the armed forces. Women between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five are required to do some kind of war work.

Under the austerity program, meals served in restaurants and cafes are limited to fifty cents for breakfast, sixty-five cents for luncheon and eighty cents for dinner.

Canned goods are not rationed because for months there has been none for civilian use. Rationing of clothing began on June 16, 1942, with a scale very much the same as Britain's. Cotton goods, which are less plentiful in Australia, are more severely limited.

Australia has sixteen times as many sheep as people. She produces a billion pounds of wool annually, and exports one-fifth of the world's supply.

Since September, 1939, the Commonwealth has enjoyed a veritable industrial revolution that has transformed it from an agricultural to a predominantly industrial nation.

Australia is not only a reservoir of highly trained manpower and a strategic base for the United Nations, she is also an arsenal of munitions and a storehouse of supplies. She has not only armed and equipped her own army and navy but she has also exported a wide range of war materials to the British, as well as to her own forces, in the Dutch East Indies, Malaya, India, Egypt, and the Near East.

Australians actually give more per capita for lend-lease than we in the United States. According to Mr. Edward Stettinius, former Lend-Lease Administrator, during the year 1942 Australia and New Zealand provided more veal, lamb and mutton for our troops than we exported through lend-lease to all countries combined.

Scores of new industries have sprung up on the island continent since the beginning of the war. The Commonwealth has been making its own tanks and planes and guns. It has created a vast steel industry which produces more than a million tons of steel annually. It boasts the biggest steel plant in the British Empire.

Air transport has been developed to a higher

degree in Australia than in any other nation in the world with anything like the same population. Even before the present conflict, Australia had more than 250 government airdromes and emergency landing fields and nearly as many licensed public airdromes. Many have been added to meet the war needs.

Australia is on a full wartime basis. All of her non-essential industries have been closed and the personnel and equipment have been converted to war purposes. All the available manpower is either in the armed services or producing food, clothing or munitions in an all-out war effort. Women have replaced men wherever possible. Profits on invested capital are limited to 4 per cent.

The Commonwealth's war expenditure for the current year represents more than 50 per cent of the national income. The proposed 1943-1944 war budget calls for an expenditure of £715,000,000 or about

\$2,888,600,000 in our currency. This is an increase of £44,000,000 over the current budget. Approximately £570,000,000—nearly 80 per cent—are devoted to war outlays and the remainder to civilian costs.

Australia is playing a tremendously important role in the world conflict. While she has looked hopefully to the Allies for support, she has made the most of her own defensive position. In Sydney she affords the United Nations the best equipped capital ship base between Pearl Harbor and Alexandria.

Today she fights the enemy entirely outside of the Commonwealth, and, aided by the United States and Great Britain, has captured some of Japan's strongholds. She is serving as a great Allied base in winning back lost positions and in turning to the offensive in New Guinea and the Solomons.

Social Origin of Southern Senators in Congress at the Time of the Civil War

H. H. HOYT

Austin High School, Austin, Texas

This study was made on the basis of twenty-nine senators representing the states of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Delaware, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.¹ During the peak of the crisis, Maryland and Missouri were represented by three senators each; by only two, of course, at any one time, and Arkansas had only one senator. It will be noted that these exceptions fall in border states possibly illustrating the buffer principle in sectional conflict. At least eight of these senators had served in the House of Representatives. Andrew Johnson of Tennessee for ten years, Robert Toombs of Georgia and James Pearce of Maryland for eight years apiece, and A. G. Brown of Mississippi and R. M. T. Hunter of Virginia for six years apiece, two of which were served by the latter as Speaker. The other three of the eight, however, served only five years; two of them two years apiece and one only a year.

¹ C. C. Clay, B. Fitzpatrick, Alabama; W. K. Sebastian, Arkansas; S. R. Mallory, D. L. Yulee, Florida; R. Toombs, A. Iverson, Georgia; J. A. Bayard, W. Saulsbury, Delaware; J. P. Benjamin, J. Slidell, Louisiana; J. A. Pearce, A. Kennedy, T. H. Hicks, Maryland; A. G. Brown, J. Davis, Mississippi; T. Polk, J. B. Henderson, R. Wilson, Missouri; T. L. Clingman, T. Bragg, North Carolina; J. Chesnut, J. H. Hammond, South Carolina; A. Johnson, A. O. P. Nicholson, Tennessee; J. Hemphill, L. T. Wigfall, Texas; J. M. Mason, R. M. T. Hunter, Virginia.

Only one of the Southern senators in Congress at the time of the Civil War was born in the North: John Slidell of Louisiana, born in New York City. All of the others, except three, were born in the South. Those three were born on islands of the Caribbean area. They were Mallory and Yulee of Florida, and J. P. Benjamin of Louisiana; the latter two were of Jewish ancestry, born on the island of St. Thomas, while Mallory was born on the island of Trinidad. They, however, came to the United States while quite young and received all of their education in their adopted country.

Not only were the senators themselves, for the most part, natives of America, but forty-six of their parents were born in the United States: forty-two in the South and four in the North, only ten being born in foreign countries. Thus, if we are to judge from birth and the influence of nurture and environment, we have every right to expect that those who represented the South in the Congressional Upper House, at the beginning of the Civil War, should have been firmly grounded in American principles, whatever they might have been thought to have been.

Careful observation of the data indicates that more than half, seventeen to be exact, of all the senators were representing states other than the ones in which they were born. They, of course, were a part of the Westward migration, which moved largely along

parallel lines in the South, coming to their adopted state, while comparatively young where they spent the creative years of their life. John Slidell, of course, migrated along vertical lines; he moved in 1819 to New Orleans from New York City at the age of twenty-six. His father was a respected merchant who became president of the Tradesmen's Insurance Company and president of the Mechanic's Bank in New York City; his mother was born in Scotland. The son was graduated from Columbia College after which he studied law and in New Orleans he acquired great distinction as a lawyer. So, up to 1860, he had spent forty-one years in the South, becoming one of its most respected citizens. He was appointed United States District Attorney for Louisiana in 1829; elected to Congress in 1843; made minister to Mexico in 1845; and was in the United States Senate from 1853 to 1861. The South's confidence in her adopted son was continued, even after the War Between the States had begun, as evidenced by Slidell's appointment as Confederate Commissioner to France. His mission, which had for its object the recognition of the Confederate States by France, was a failure, but he succeeded in negotiating a large loan and in securing the ship "Stonewall" for the Confederate government.

In fact Slidell's social status is typical of most of his confreres from the South in the Senate in 1860; that is of the group which E. M. Coulter chooses to call the respectable middle class of farmers, tradesmen and professional men. Contrary to what many may believe the South was not represented (in the Upper House at least), at the time of the Civil War, by members of the planter aristocracy. There were only six of her senators, who at that time could have been said to have been born into that class; they were Chestnut of South Carolina; Yulee of Florida; Toombs and Iverson of Georgia; Wigfall of Texas and R. M. T. Hunter of Virginia.

Dr. Coulter thinks that the Southern gentlemen and their ladies were far too scarce to make this picture typical of the Old South. In 1860 there were 118,000 white families in Georgia, whereas only 41,000 held slaves. Of those who held slaves there were only 6,363 families who owned twenty or more slaves to do the work. Thus, for every family that might qualify for the planter aristocracy there were about nineteen who had to be content to remain in the "respectable middle class of farmers, tradesmen and professional men."² What was true of Georgia was no doubt true of the South in similar proportions.

Middle class dominance in the South's senatorial representation would, of course, provide property a needed spokesman. Only five of Dixie's twenty-nine senators in 1860 could really be said, by their biog-

raphers, to have been born of "poor parents." Of this five, two, A. G. Brown and Jefferson Davis of Mississippi received a college education while one, J. B. Henderson of Missouri, pursued academic studies of his own accord, was an omnivorous reader, taught school, read law and became a lawyer. The other two were T. H. Hicks of Maryland and Andrew Johnson of Tennessee; of which it may be said of Hicks that he was only given a rudimentary education, worked on a farm until he could claim a career of his own; became a register of wills and served three years in the National Senate, 1857-1860. Johnson, the last of the five to be considered, but by no means least in importance seems to have had the most humble origin. This may be difficult to believe since he has become the best known of all the twenty-nine under discussion, with the possible exception of Jefferson Davis who became the president of the Confederacy.

It is quite possible that T. H. Hicks, just for an example, had just as lowly an origin as Andrew Johnson but Hicks did not become as famous nor make as many enemies. All that we know of Johnson's father was that he was a sexton: "an honest man loved and respected by all who knew him." Andrew, a native of North Carolina, was left in poverty upon the death of his father which was not relieved by the second marriage of his mother. He was quite young when he moved to Tennessee and became apprenticed to a tailor; and at one time was advertised as a runaway. Johnson afterward married the daughter of a Scotch shoemaker who assisted him in the improvement of his reading and writing. He learned to become a powerful speaker but especially in his earlier years he was often crude both in his thought and diction. The future senator was greatly helped by his unaffiliated relations with nearby educational institutions and by the political training that he had not only in state politics but in his ten years as Congressman.

It may be interesting to infer conjecturally relative to Jefferson Davis' future without the education provided by an older and admiring brother of means. Lacking the aggressiveness of Andrew Johnson it may be questioned whether Davis would have risen as far with the same handicaps.

Social status and family background had much to do with the extent of formal education which was received by the Southern leaders but did not necessarily determine loyalty to Southern institutions. Although Andrew Johnson reprehended the slave-white ration of three to five he claimed to be "orthodox" on the slavery issue and attacked the abolitionist forces. He also favored the Jefferson Davis resolutions introduced into the Senate February 2, 1860, demanding that Congress guarantee slave property in the territories. Negro slavery inevitably presented a social and political conflict when the North began to

² E. M. Coulter, *College Life in the Old South*, pp. 217-218.

make a moral issue of Southern interracial relationships; which was intensified by the desire of Southern whites for racial preeminence.

Johnson loved the Union but had the "poor whites" distrust of meddling by those disconnected in interest and feeling with the South's peculiar social problem. He was applauded by the North for his courage in remaining at his post during the war, but he more than once showed great sympathy for the South. In special session he introduced a resolution which passed the Senate July 24, 1861, by which the purposes of the war were declared to be, not conquest or subjugation or interference with the rights or established institutions of the Southern states, but the defense and maintenance of the supremacy of the Constitution and the Union.

Thus it can be seen that the South was a rather closely-knit unit conscious of its unique position and making certain definite demands. This exclusiveness may be indicated somewhat by the fact that all of her Upper House representation in 1860 was made up of men either born in the South or whose residence there dates back at least four decades. Soundness of opinion on such things as states rights and the compact theory was the important requirement for her leadership; wealth, apparently, not being a primary consideration. It was also necessary to be sound on the economic question; the closely knit unity of the South was in no small degree due to its chief agricultural interest: cotton.

When the Southern leadership that was to be responsible for helping to carry their section into the Civil War came on the scene, the South had passed through her formative period. There was no doubt in their minds, as there seems to have once been in the mind of Calhoun, that the tariff was a burden upon them; they had no qualms about slavery as Jefferson once had. Greater pride for Southern institutions came to exist as they seemed to come to be sanctioned by tradition and brought to the necessary hardness and toughness through the crucible of "persecution."

It has been stated that all but six of the twenty-nine Southern senators in Congress in 1860 were of the middle class. Despite the reputed interest of the planter aristocracy in genealogy they evidently didn't make official distinction a hereditary matter. Politics seems to have been the South's chief interest as agriculture was its chief means of support; and as has been indicated there was enough specialization in an agricultural society to support a middle class. Our best proof of this are the towns and cities scattered throughout the South some of which were quite important in her economic life such as New Orleans, Charleston, Savannah, and Baltimore.

While only thirteen of the South's senators under discussion were born in urban areas twenty-five went

to school in urban areas and twenty-seven became lawyers, most of whom had their headquarters in towns. Other professions represented among them which were plied at one time or another, some being coextensive with their law practice, were newspaper writing and editing, school teaching, probate judge, Clerk of Circuit Court, register of wills, diplomat, merchant, planter, inspector of customs, and prosecuting attorney. The perquisites of a few engaged in some of these professions would naturally be quite large. John Slidell born in New York City and Anthony Kennedy of Baltimore inherited quite a bit of wealth derived largely from trade.

It should not be inferred that college students of ante-bellum days received a great amount of technical information in their college work. Clement C. Clay and James M. Mason are the only two Southern senators of the crisis period, for instance, whom I could positively determine to have studied law in college. All of the others, and there were twenty-five of them, studied law either on their own or in the law office of usually some well known lawyer. The question then arises as to what the solons were taught in their higher learning. President Kemp P. Battle of the University of North Carolina said that it was intended that the life, both academic and social in his school should be almost literally a "microcosm" of the state. Great emphasis on religion was stressed, compulsory chapel attendance and attendance at prayer was required. Respect for Southern institutions was demanded especially from the professors who were charged with molding the minds of the younger generation. Great stress was placed upon oratory in which there was serious attempt to cultivate clear and forceful expression. Dr. Battle said that his research in the writing of the history of the University of North Carolina shows a very close parallel between success in the life of that university and in the subsequent careers of the alumni, among whom were Clingman of North Carolina and Nicholson of Tennessee.

This would be true, no doubt of other Southern colleges such as the University of Virginia, the University of South Carolina, College of Charleston, the University of the South, and the University of Missouri. But eleven of the Southern senators in Congress in 1860 received their formal training either wholly or in large part from Northern schools; Princeton being the Alma Mater of three: Chesnut of South Carolina, Iverson of Georgia, and Pearce of Maryland. Princeton was the mother of the University of North Carolina as well as a large number of other Southern Colleges such as Hampton-Sidney and Washington in Virginia; Queens College in North Carolina; Mount Zion in South Carolina; Washington, Tusculum, Greenville, and the University of Nashville in Tennessee; and Transylvania

in Kentucky; all having been founded by alumni of Princeton.

So we can expect the course work of all the colleges, both North and South, to be practically the same except that in the approaching conflict between the sections it is not to be expected that Northern colleges would have the "respect for Southern institutions" that Dr. Battle said was the aim of the University of North Carolina to attain. Yale College, which was attended by Polk of Missouri and Benjamin of Louisiana, was the first to incur the displeasure of the Southern students on account of a declaration by members of the Yale faculty on the Kansas question. Princeton secured most of Yale's lost patronage; however, sectional issues, particularly slavery, were to have their effect on the Princeton campus. Fully half of Princeton's students were ardent adherents of the newly organized Republican Party and thus were ardent advocates of the non-extension of slavery. It was only natural that this should have its effect on the sensibilities of the boys from the South who even in less tense times were always deeply interested in politics.

Twenty-six of the South's senators in Congress in 1860 were Democrats, twenty-one of whom supported Breckinridge and five supported Douglas in the presidential campaign of 1860. Only three supported Lincoln, all of whom were from border states: Thomas Hicks and Anthony Kennedy of Maryland,

and James A. Bayard of Delaware. Of the five who supported Douglas all but four were from border states; the remaining one was David L. Yulee of Florida who disagreed with Douglas over secession. Bayard who supported Lincoln later came back into the Democratic fold. So it is a safe inference that those who were representing the South in the nation's Capital had practically the same social origin as the Southern boys who were arguing their section's cause in Princeton when the slavery issue became prominent.

The Civil War resulted from a clash between divergent points of view and the South did not want for able apologists. Its leaders had been properly provided from their social background to handle intricate constitutional questions in the orthodox manner. I believe that it was principally to achieve this aim that the study of law was chiefly made an object of private study usually with some ardent exponent of the particularistic school; as was that of the study of R. M. T. Hunter under St. George Tucker. John Hemphill who has been called the "John Marshall" of Texas was a true follower of Calhoun and the states-rights school.

Whatever else might be said, the kind of conflicts of which the Civil War was one do not occur except from opposing points of view deeply seated in divergent social backgrounds.

English in Seven Weeks

I. NORMAN SMITH

Toronto, Canada

"Learn to fly, but first learn to speak English." This is what the R.C.A.F. has to say to thousands of its trainees.

French-Canadians, Free French, Cubans, Czechs, Poles, Mexicans, and numerous others come to Canada to train for the Allied air forces. They're eager for a control stick but they start with an English textbook at the School of English in the R.C.A.F.'s massive Manning Depot here in Toronto.

Seeing them sitting in classrooms, dark-skinned Southerners and blond Scandinavians, you realize all over again what a melting pot the British Commonwealth Air Training Plan really is. Farmers, school-boys, salesmen, artisans—gathered from all over the world at their own urging to sit before a blackboard and learn: "He is a big man and has a small nose." What a melting pot, and how much has to be done before the finished product pours out!

The School of English has been operating in Toronto since October, 1940. Probably 95 per cent of

its students have been French-Canadian—but the Air Force is dealing in big numbers these days and that remaining 5 per cent represents a lot of foreign nations. Even the R.A.F. uses this school. The continental refugee who sneaks away from darkened Europe in a fishing boat and lands in England to join the R.A.F. is sent to Toronto to learn English and then trained to fly in one of the many R.A.F. schools in Canada.

Nine-tenths of the French-Canadian entries into the Air Force now come to No. 1 Manning Depot, the first step in Air Force Training, and about 75 per cent of these have to enroll in the School of English. The course stretches the Manning Depot's usual schedule of about five weeks into twelve weeks.

Seven weeks may seem a short period in which to learn a language, but the chief instructor assured me the job is well done by then and that the student is able to hold his own in the severe schoolwork and training that is to follow.

"English is much easier to learn than French," said he as he noticed the sceptical look on my face: "besides, we only need to give them a sound grounding and they carry on from there. The schools are all English and the boys live and play in English once they get started."

Normal Manning Depot routine is largely drill, learning the rudiments of discipline and being exposed to inoculations and medical tests. Students of the School of English take this routine concurrently with their English classes. The English course has several grades, so that a trainee may be ranked according to his proficiency in English and the nature of the Air Force course he is subsequently to take. However, most of the students start right at the beginning.

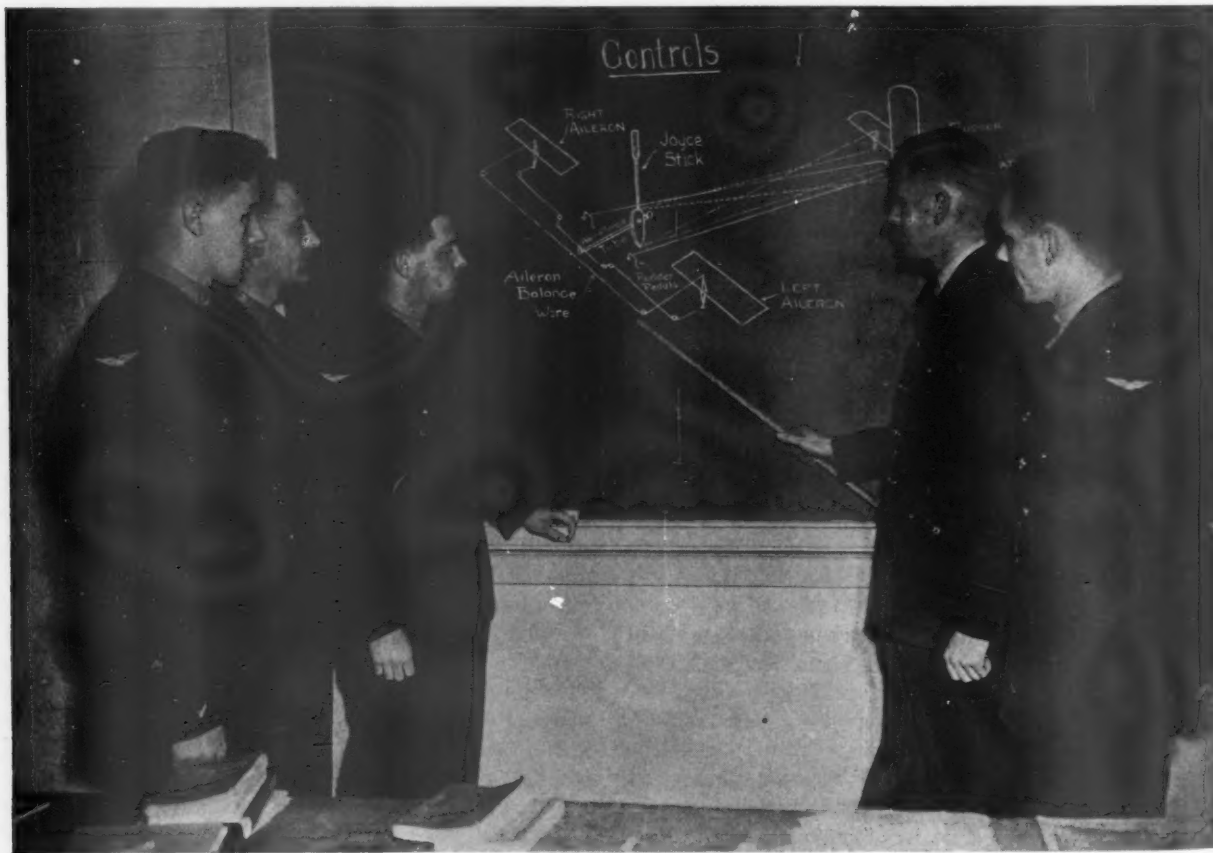
"That is" and "It is not" and "I am coming" is the starting point. After a while the written examination asks such questions as what is the day of the week, month of the year, when do you get up, where do you eat. At the end of the twelve weeks it is stiff: "Define equilibrium," "What is called reciprocating motion?" "Define oil pressure pump."

It will be noticed they get into technical language.

This meets two objectives: (1) The trainees joined the Air Force to fight a war and their attention would not be held by merely an English course. So as soon as they get a grounding in English the remainder of the English course is in effect a teaching of the subjects they are later to take: aircrew, engine and airframe mechanics, electricians, etc. (2) This scheme also gives them a bit of a head start on their English colleagues so that they will not fall behind when first they are confronted with the technical courses of the next school.

There are eighteen instructors at the school, each of them formerly a school teacher. But they are youthful teachers with a zip to them and the school room doesn't seem too stuffy an affair. They have all become experts in engine mechanics, or the theory of aviation or whatever subject they are teaching; yet none of them is really a technician.

What about Basic English? I asked that, too, and the reply is that they did try Basic English for a while but had to amend it somewhat to get in all the technical terms they required. Now they are working on creation of a Basic English method of their own and from the look in their eye you get the idea they are



VICTOR GRIFFITHS, A BILINGUAL INSTRUCTOR FROM MONTREAL GIVING A LESSON ON AIRPLANE CONTROLS TO STUDENTS AT THE R.C.A.F. SCHOOL OF ENGLISH, TORONTO

proud of it. But that is yet to be announced and I may only forecast its arrival.

There are usually about 900 students in the English School, divided into classes of from forty to fifty. Students unable to pass the course are posted to "contact work" at an Air Force station where they work as a mechanic's assistant or cook's helper and in the process pick up a familiarity with English. After three months they return to the School of English and start all over again. This "contact work" is the practical experience most of them need and many a rejected man returns to the School of English fully ready to pass all tests.

The "English" atmosphere around all R.C.A.F. stations goes a long way to make a man familiar with English. Either he asks for his supper in English or he goes hungry! Men of foreign tongue are urged to try to speak English even though they will be guilty of mistakes. The records show that some who came to

Toronto with scarcely a word of English have concluded their Air Force courses with honors and graduated not only with wings but with another language to their credit.

One man who has been watching the School of English for some time says it is having a most beneficial effect upon French-Canadians not only with respect to their language but to their general deportment and enterprise. A French-Canadian from a backwoods town who finds he can learn to speak English gets a new confidence from the experience and he starts upon his technical courses with eagerness where before he was nervous and awkward. The school breaks down prejudices and broadens horizons and educational authorities have their eye on it as a possible post-war experiment. Today it is all done in the name of war, but it is an influence for unity and friendship which the country will do well to retain in the name of peace.



AIRCRAFT RECOGNITION IS ONE OF THE IMPORTANT AND INTERESTING CLASSES TAUGHT AT THE R.C.A.F. SCHOOL OF ENGLISH, TORONTO

Preparing for Our Place in World Affairs

FRANK FAIRBANK

Social Studies Department, Baltimore City College, Baltimore, Maryland

In October, 1881, invitations to a Pan-American Congress were sent out by our Secretary of State. In January of 1882 another Secretary of State cancelled the invitations. At the end of World War I Woodrow Wilson was the leader in the fight to establish a League of Nations. He sacrificed much to make his vision a reality. The United States repudiated the organization which he had worked so hard to establish.

What does all this amount to?

As several outstanding writers have stated, our foreign relations have been determined by plans not policy. Plans, which an individual or party may follow with success, are easily changed when other individuals or parties get into power. Plans are subordinated to the party in power. On the other hand a long range policy is above party interests. A foreign policy, instead of being a football for politicians to kick back and forth as they please should be a guiding star to national statesmen, regardless of party. They might veer a little to one side or the other, but their goal would be fixed.

Why have we plans instead of a policy? The full answer to this question is beyond the scope of this paper, but one outstanding reason is that a foreign policy, in a democracy such as ours, must be supported by a well trained public opinion. In the past, the varying interests of the sections of the country, the conflicting attitudes of foreign born groups and the general lack of realizing the need for better management of foreign affairs have prevented the development of any widespread generally accepted views on foreign affairs.

This has changed. With millions of our sons and brothers facing death abroad, with the realization that we are against an enemy who could have attacked us in our homes, we at last see the necessity for doing more than winning a war. We must take a prominent, permanent part in world affairs. We must have reached at last a maturity of outlook as a result of which we realize the need for knowledge and will and action in foreign affairs.

What a responsibility this places upon the schools! The foundation of knowledge and attitude—the basis of a sound public opinion—must be laid by the social studies teachers and especially by the teachers of United States history. No longer may we teach the history of our nation with "a wall around it"; teaching only events as they occurred in the United States and as though they had no relationship with conditions in the rest of the world. As the phases of our development are studied they should be associated with the world movements of which they are a part. Our students must realize as they study our history that at no time have we "lived alone."

Some examples from United States history, showing how national events may be linked with world affairs are given in the remainder of this article. Many other occasions for teaching a broader interpretation of history will present themselves to the alert teacher.

1. A chart of the wars between England and France, such as the following one, developed, by reports by individual students, or by the class as a whole, may be put on the blackboard.

<i>Date of the War</i>	<i>Name of the War</i>	<i>Contestants</i>	
1702-1713	War of the Spanish Succession	France Spain Bavaria	vs. { Great Britain Holland Austria Portugal Savoy
1740-1748	War of the Austrian Succession	France Prussia Spain Bavaria	vs. { Great Britain Austria Holland
1756-1763	Seven Years' War	France Austria Russia Sweden Saxony	vs. { Great Britain Prussia

1776-1783	The American Revolution	United States France Holland Spain	} vs. {	Great Britain
1793-1802	War Against the French Republic	France	} vs. {	Great Britain Holland, Sweden Austria, Sardinia Naples Portugal
1803-1815	Napoleonic Wars	France and Conquered Countries	} vs. {	Great Britain Austria, Sweden, Russia, Prussia at Different Times

From the discussion arising from the consideration of the chart the following concepts may be developed.

1. That the American Revolution became in time a world war: one in a series of wars between Great Britain and France.
2. That our undeclared war against France in 1798 as well as our War of 1812 were merely "side shows" in world wars.
3. That the basic causes of these wars, namely, the desire for lands, for trade and for control of Europe are also the causes of the present war.

From these considerations the conclusion may be drawn that in spite of Washington's Proclamation of Neutrality and Jefferson's efforts we, as a nation of the world, have been drawn into world conflicts, regardless of our feelings in the matter. In our earlier years our part was rather minor. As we have grown in power it is still impossible for us to stay out of world affairs, so our aim should be, together with other nations of peaceful intent, to do all that we can to prevent war.

2. As the student studies the revolutionary period he should realize that the political ideals that inspired our leaders were not ours alone, but had been developing in England for hundreds of years and our philosophy of government owed much to the writings of such men as Locke and Montesquieu. Other peoples were influenced by the same democratic ideals which inspired us. The French, and the Latin Americans, with varying degrees of success, followed our example. Others were not so successful. Consider how different might have been the history of our age if democracy and nationalism instead of militarism and nationalism had triumphed in Germany in the nineteenth century.

3. The period of instability and of experiments in government before 1789 may be compared to similar periods in other countries following wars for inde-

pendence. Again we may consider France and the Latin American countries. Such a study should arouse a greater appreciation of the accomplishments of the fathers of the Constitution and should help us understand the plight of those countries not so politically advanced as we, which are still struggling to establish a democratic government on a permanent basis.

4. Some writers have referred to the period after the War of 1812 as a time of "turning our backs on Europe." Even though we were facing west we were also laying the foundations of our industrial revolution. And, an industrial revolution means among other things, a need for raw materials and world markets. Once the student comprehends the problems associated with these two factors he can readily see the impossibility of an isolationist policy.

5. The Monroe Doctrine is regarded by isolationists as a statement of our policy of aloofness from world affairs. It may have been that, yet was it not also a proclamation by a young nation announcing its attitude toward a world problem? It did not close us off from the rest of the world as much as it gave us a recognized position in the world. And did it not depend, to a great extent, upon the British fleet for its success?

6. Our part in world affairs is further emphasized when we study the gains made as a result of the Spanish American War, our expansion both territorially and economically in the Caribbean and our part in World War I. How can we adopt a policy which refuses to recognize the part which we must take in world affairs when we consider how our territorial and economic interests and even our political ideals are affected by world wide influences?

Our pupils must realize from their studies that we have a choice of policies. After this war, shall we, influenced by an emotional reaction, again shut our eyes to the realities of world affairs and proclaim our neutrality, or isolation, until some shocking blow drags us unprepared into another world conflict? Or

shall we wisely prepare for the part which we should take along with other leading nations in guiding world affairs to bring peace and justice to all? We are not born with such wisdom; we have to be educated

to it. Vice President Henry Wallace said: "Those who write the peace must think of the whole world." It is the duty of the social studies teacher to turn the students' thoughts to our relations with the world.

Union Propaganda in the American Civil War

GEORGE WINSTON SMITH

American University, Washington, D.C.

Propaganda is an inevitable component of war. Whatever the war, and however changing the historical scene, there are certain immutabilities in human reactions to the challenging words that summon up sacrifice. Quite understandably, the propaganda of the Civil War was infinitely less developed than our present verbal storm. In truth, the society of 1861-1865, balancing unsteadily upon the threshold of the American industrial revolution, was frequently mirrored in the rather clumsy didactics of its propagandisms. Yet the emotions set loose with abandon in the frenzy of conflict had a power and ruthlessness against which we may well compare our own motives and devices for controlling public opinion.

At the outbreak of the Civil War there were few observers who attempted to distinguish between spontaneous enthusiasm and responses to carefully directed appeals for action. Those were the halcyon war days in which martial excitement transformed even gross selfishness into patriotism. Indicative of naïveté were Union badges, "patriotic finales" in theaters, and the crowds that gathered in awed curiosity to stare into a New York store window at a Confederate victim's bullet-torn hat and bloody jacket. One New York *Herald* newsman, however, after sloshing through wet streets in the chill rain of an unseasonable April day, reflected long enough to evaluate the fantastic commotion he had witnessed in hotel lobbies, restaurants, and other public places. He concluded that there was apparently no thought either of sacrifice or of responsibility as the would-be-patriots "sipped their hot steaming toddies and uttered confused thoughts about knocking Jeff Davis and his cabinet into . . . 'a cocked hat' . . ." The smoke of Havana cigars, bottles of champagne, savory viands, and the seasoning of peppery conversation seemed effective deterrents to a true understanding of the Union's danger. Only a few cynical realists dared join with an employee of James Gordon Bennett's "satanic" *Herald* in ridiculing the North's reaction to the attack upon Fort

Sumter. On the contrary, millions of enthusiasts echoed the cry of Horace Greeley's *Tribune* that "beneath the slag and scum of forty years' peace . . . the fires of patriotic devotion are still intensely burning."

While the historian of propaganda can find factual support for both the *Herald* reporter's and the *Tribune's* points of view, he must be aware of a germane question that can be addressed to the Greeley paper's statement. What inflammatory propaganda fed those "fires of patriotic devotion"? The answer is complex. For Union wartime propaganda had its origins in thirty varied years of anti-slavery clamor.

During the three decades of sectional strife which preceded open warfare, the propaganda-crusade against slavery began as a hobby of fanatical abolitionists; later its appeal broadened until millions of the Northern masses identified its dogma with a defense of democratic institutions. According to the propaganda ritual of 1861, the pro-slavery South hated Northern ideals, hated the Northern way-of-life, her free schools, her economic power, and her enterprising spirit. Indeed, this propagandist thesis conjured a peril which even moderate minds in the North came to accept as sufficient cause for a militantly defensive attitude. A sympathetic interest in the black man for the black man's sake was, except for a few idealists, not sufficient inducement to risk white men's lives upon the battlefield; but even among those of the North who derided "abolitionism" there was an identification of the white race's rights and prosperity with "Northern institutions."

Anti-slavery propaganda lavishly hailed "free labor" as the primary institution of the North. It was the abolitionist Gerrit Smith who, more than twenty years before Abraham Lincoln's "house divided" pronouncement, admonished: "The antagonist principles of liberty and slavery cannot be peaceable neighbors. The one will make aggressions on the other, and unless the pure and peaceable and merciful principles of the Abolitionists soon over-

spread the South, the odious doctrines inculcated by . . . Southern statesmen will have . . . effectually prepared the way for reducing Northern laborers to a herd of slaves." Proclaiming Bentham's text of "the greatest happiness of the greatest number," the propagandists pledged that Northern freemen should not fall under the subjection of a few Southern aristocrats. And although he was himself repudiated as a fanatical agitator, the abolitionist lived to see Northern politicians adopt his strategy by presenting the protective tariff, homesteads, and internal improvements as appeals for a free democracy. In short, "free labor," the essence of progress and the antithesis of slavery, became the fulcrum of political propaganda against the South.

From its inception in 1854 the Republican party was a vigorous anti-slavery force. Its intolerant aggressiveness at once cemented the ties of a militant minority. United in fervent opposition to the westward extension of slavery, it stood in complete contrast to the prudent vacillation of the cumbrous Whig and Democratic machines. In testimony of its ability to exploit propaganda issues, one shrewd analyst noted after the 1856 election: "All other influences sink into insignificance compared with that brought to bear for two years past, and especially during the past four months by the tremendous machinery of the campaign press, to convince the laboring classes [in the North] . . . of the aristocratic nature of the institution of slavery. . . ."

Certainly it was obvious that whatever their personal jealousies and factional alignments may have been, the early Republicans agreed that their party should have its foundation in this type of anti-slavery agitation. To create such an organization, political spoilsmen of negligible moral fervor joined with idealists who saw a noble society developing in a nation of free men. After 1856, however, the party broadened its program to attract vigorous young business men, old Whiggish conservatives, former members of the nativist American party, and other factions. Radical anti-slavery stalwarts then became fearful lest the old Whig policy of "sectional compromise" should dilute stern Republican resolution. The ex-Whigs might introduce a new era of cooperation between the divergent parts of the Union in lieu of the abolitionist plan of sectional disunity! Nor did the Republican election victory of 1860 entirely reassure the Radical anti-slavery leaders. The Radicals were still a small minority, and the conservative wing of the party was certain to be an important factor in the moderate-minded Lincoln's administration.

Then came the possibility of Civil War. Immediately it raised new hopes for an impregnable party organization which would sustain for their lifetime the faithful retainers of Radical Republicanism. If

the South were crushed, the strong pro-slavery element of the Democratic party would disappear; a judicious admittance of anti-slavery Democrats into the Republican camp would damage immeasurably the old Democratic machine in the North. War hatreds would sweep the Radicals to great heights of popularity, and their conservative rivals for the control of the Republican administration soon would be all but forgotten.

The anti-slavery argument, however, was not a mere political defense of Northern institutions; it was also a bold expression of economic imperialism. Anti-slavery orators were never content to discuss "the stagnant pool of slavery" without painting a contrasting picture of New England pouring forth its tide of industrial development as far as the Rockies. It was entirely typical too, that groups of Northern capitalists from time to time should be anxious to secure for themselves some tangible economic gains from this "free labor" propaganda.

The New England Emigrant Aid Company, founded in 1854 to fill Kansas with anti-slavery settlers, was controlled by a group of business men who were by no means self-sacrificing friends of the Negro. To be sure, many of the emigrants it sponsored were armed with "Beecher's Bibles," and went forth with crusaders' cries of vengeance. But the company's foremost promoter, Eli Thayer, frequently stressed the profit motive in his speeches on Yankee colonization in Kansas. Soon after its formation, the company began investing in fertile Kansas lands, and some New England manufacturers became convinced that a "free labor civilization" would open new Western markets for their goods. Moreover, the drive for markets and investments which helped beget the Kansas Aid movement conceived similar projects which would have transformed the Upper South and Texas into other fields of imperialistic development.

All this is not meant to imply that Northern business men were either consistent or unanimous in their support of anti-slavery arguments. Yankee promoters were quite willing to quash the abolitionist approach to economic exploitation if their plans could be carried out by more peaceful means. For although some business leaders whose interests were more narrowly sectional became propagandists attached to the intransigent faction of the Republican party, a great number of financiers and manufacturers saw their prosperity identified with national harmony. Believing the peaceful growth of a diversified economic life in the South would increase that section's purchasing power and stabilize Northern capital investments there, some Northern capitalists were ready to support a forlorn hope for sectional compromise in 1860. The neo-Whig, Constitutional Union party which proposed to

subordinate all other issues to saving the Union received the blessing of numerous Eastern business men. Even after the inadequacies of the party became evident, a considerable proportion of its capitalist supporters conducted an energetic "Union Saving" propaganda campaign during the winter months of 1860-1861.

In the time of crisis which followed the first acts of secession, it was the Radical Republicans who fought hardest against conciliatory "Union Saving." In addition to the strident voice of the Radical press, the Republican Central Committee of New York City organized an anti-Southern campaign. Radical party workers in Massachusetts published a violent propaganda sheet, *The Tocsin*. As a contrast, a more subtle propaganda was that written by Francis Lieber, professor of political economy in Columbia College, who praised the United States Constitution as an organic entity worth defending at the cost of life itself. Thus Lieber, while appropriating the propaganda for a "defense of the Union" which the Democrats themselves had used with success in many elections, in reality was creating a new propaganda for war. His plea was for men to fight, not for the retention of peaceful union. Southern agents supposedly were cooperating in sinister projects. "Is it not notorious," asked one editor, "that the Democratic organization of Pennsylvania is at this day in the hands of men who act in concert with those who have defaced our flag, expelled our citizens, [and] plundered our treasury in the South?" War gave him the desired answer. In the days which followed Sumter, bewildered ardor for the North's great adventure gave rise to numerous pledges "in defense of the Union." Business men who had supported the propaganda of peace now organized mass-meetings for the warlike cause. In New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago they formed "Union Defense" committees to mobilize both public opinion and armed forces.

Since the anti-Southern psychosis which had been woven into Northern thought by thirty years of anti-slavery propaganda was, in a sense, self-generating, some Union propaganda continued to circulate with momentum gained before the war. Also there was a great deal of "unintentional propaganda," disseminated by individuals who did not understand the social consequences of their actions.¹ Nevertheless, a portion of the great hoard of emotional energy poured into specific non-partisan tasks in response to carefully planned appeals. Illustrative of these propagandist devices were Jay Cooke's highly publicized bond-selling campaigns, and the various mass-meetings designed to encourage enlistments.

Politicians too were as conscious as ever of public

opinion. Even the mild "Granny" Bates of Lincoln's cabinet recorded in his diary: "Weak and hesitating men allow their bold and active enemies to make public opinion against them. Bold and active rulers make it on their side." Probably Bates had in mind an equivalent of the modern "propaganda of the deed" concept rather than the influence of words. But the speeches, proclamations, and other expressions of government conservatives from Lincoln downward all seem to reveal a thorough understanding of propaganda's potentialities.

Because the Civil War generation was notably avid in its reading of newspaper editorials, the Northern press somewhat simplified the task of reaching the "public mind." Henry J. Raymond of the *New York Times*, Samuel Bowles of the Springfield (Massachusetts) *Republican*, and other able publishers stood staunchly behind Lincoln in propagandizing the conservative Republican-Unionist point of view. Theirs was a difficult task, however, because in supporting the slow-moving policy of the cautious Lincoln's administration they were forced to fight a defensive campaign against Radical editors and politicians who were frothing in their eagerness for complete subjugation of the South. Undoubtedly the greatest force in Union propaganda was that outspoken combination of Republicans which claimed the designation of "Radical" because it realized that a strong anti-slavery program was necessary for its existence. It lived upon war-hatred, and that began to appear early in the struggle.

Within a few weeks after Sumter, the initial jubilation over the plunge into war began to disappear; instead of flag-waving abandon there was a growing demand for brutality in suppression of the Southern "revolt." No less able a judge than Secretary of State, William H. Seward, reflected: "The public is impatient, it wants activity, and in the absence of activity it wants cruelty." But after the mid-summer fiasco of Bull Run, war-hatred became still more intense. All the North's fears, humiliation, and anger fell upon the South with a great outpouring of atrocity propaganda. Especially to the Radical minority it seemed that increased activity on all fronts—military, political, and propaganda—was essential if defeat were to be avoided in those early stages of the war. To such a need Radical leaders in Congress responded with the creation of the oddly titled Joint Committee of Investigation, the Committee on the Conduct of the War. The reports on various subjects issuing from this outgrowth of legislative interference soon began to provide a thesaurus of propaganda. Pieced together from hearsay evidence and stereotyped "eye-witness" accounts, the committee's productions would have received far less credence had it not been for the authority lent by its members' names. In the conclusions appended to his first

¹ See, Leonard W. Doob, *Propaganda: Its Psychology and Technique* (New York, 1935), p. 89.

report, the chairman, Senator Benjamin F. Wade of Ohio, gave candid admission of the investigation's political objective: "These disclosures, establishing as they do the consistent inhumanity of the rebel leaders, will be read with sorrow and indignation by the people of the loyal states. They should inspire these people with renewed exertions to protect our country from the restoration to power of such men."

A multiplicity of other propaganda activities came before the public in 1862. The *Chicago Tribune* began to distribute a special series of *War Tracts* that contained addresses of Radical congressmen. In Massachusetts abolitionists and politicians cooperated to organize the Emancipation League. There were still more important developments in New York where Prosper M. Wetmore, acting president of the New York Chamber of Commerce and friend of Lincoln's most radical cabinet member, Salmon P. Chase, promoted the publication of Radical pamphlets entitled *Crisis Papers*. Almost simultaneously, the non-partisan Union Defense Committee of New York came under the leadership of John Austin Stevens, Jr., also a leading figure in commercial circles whose father was a banker close to Chase. Reorganized as the National War Committee of New York, Stevens' committee began to publish extremist propaganda, with the consequent resignation of several conservative members.

In their various propaganda activities the Radicals found it possible to use several resolute pressure-groups. These included anti-slavery churchmen, abolitionists, and "Southern Union men" who traveled through the North. Nowhere were there more unrestrained exhortations for thoroughness in suppressing the "rebellion" than those shouted from flag-draped pulpits. In October, 1861, the *Springfield Republican* noted: "About half the sermons preached on the late day of National Fast—and by the leading city preachers who are accounted the representative men of the various sects—assume that God requires that the war should be made a war of emancipation. . . ." New York clergymen, like the Reverend Vincent Colyer, became active members of the Young Men's Republican Union, while occasionally a religious publication like the *St. Louis Central Christian Advocate* responded to the suggestions of the Radicals in return for patronage favors. Observing the spirit of the times, religious Tract Societies included "military pamphlets" in their publications, and enjoyed greatly increased sales. The American Unitarian Association alone printed nearly a million tracts for distribution among the soldiers.

Another society that was useful in circulating propaganda in the armies was the United States Christian Commission. Under the direction of Joseph C. Thomas, it built up a "reading system"

of newspapers and periodicals for the "contentment, obedience, and courage" of the "national defenders." In addition, it disposed of many tracts and organized a loan library system which contained such propagandist volumes as W. C. Harris' *Prison Life in a Tobacco Warehouse*. The Sanitary Commission, a rival society founded by Rev. H. W. Bellows with the cooperation of Charles Sumner and other Radicals, also spread considerable literature. Late in 1862, for example, this Commission sent 10,000 copies of Bellow's essay, *Unconditional Loyalty*, throughout the Army of the Potomac. In somewhat the same category as propagandizing clergymen was a heterogeneous group of professional lecturers, essayists, and actors. Ranging from the John Hutchinson family which wandered over the North singing in a vaudeville performance, to James E. Murdoch, an accomplished actor whose "readings" were delivered in the Senate Chamber, they preached almost unanimously a doctrine of retribution.

A specialized type of professional lecturer and writer was the reformer devoted to abolition. When Charles Sumner spoke boldly in favor of an abolition policy at the Massachusetts State Republican Convention in October, 1861, career abolitionists, who only a year before had denounced him along with Lincoln as a temporizing politician, sent words of praise and decided there was no time to be lost in inaugurating a new propaganda movement. The American Anti-Slavery Society then formulated a new statement of principles which reversed its former dictum that there should be no cooperation with the slavery-tainted federal government. Impetuous William Lloyd Garrison gave orders to remove the long-standing cry that the Constitution was a "covenant with death" from the masthead of his anti-slavery sheet, *The Liberator*. A new series of tracts issued by the American Anti-Slavery Society was intended to revive many of the old, inflammatory stereotypes.

On their part, Radical politicians were anxious to make use of the abolitionists, especially since the abolitionist press often would give them space which was denied by the conservative policies of many metropolitan dailies. This was literally the beginning of a "golden age" in abolitionist agitation. Upon his desk at Washington, President Lincoln almost every day found commissions to sign for abolitionists whom the radical Chase had appointed to Treasury Department sinecures. Abolition speakers received invitations to appear at places they had never approached before. The Pennsylvania legislature requested none other than the veteran abolitionist, William Cheever, to address it on public affairs; and when Garrison spoke at the commencement-week of Williams College, he for the first time assumed the role of popular orator in a New Eng-

land school. Typical of the reports from abolitionist lecturers was that of the agent whose "earnest auditors" in Vermont made his life one of luxury. When in Brattleboro, as an illustration, he spent an entire week at a "Cold Water Establishment" which had "in perfection all the baths known to hydropathy," and where the scenery was "of the most beautiful and inspiring character."

Being well aware that a purely abolitionist argument had always been one of limited scope, Radical political leaders recognized the value of cultivating another type of professional propagandist, namely the "Southern Unionist." Indulgent concern for certain classes of "free white men" in the South proceeded logically from the "free labor" argument. For although they were reported to be suffering terrible persecutions at the hands of the slaveholders, it was thought that the Southern "yeoman farmers" were "loyal to the Union and the ideals of freedom." Tales of suffering among the Southern "yeoman" group offered to Northern propagandists a plea for all those moral considerations which would bring succor to that weak minority which strove to perpetuate the "blessings of democracy." Typical accounts told of Southern Unionists confined in cage-like chambers, or of bloodhounds tearing into bits the refugees who attempted to escape to the Union lines through canebrakes and swamps. Before long, many of the more literate of the thousands of Southern Unionists who escaped to the "promised land" of freedom began to narrate their experiences in the role of itinerant lecturers. As might be expected, the Radical politicians strove to turn this propaganda to their advantage. The Tennessee "hero," "Parson" Brownlow, for example, after a Northern tour which was closely supervised by the Radicals, became a treasury agent at Secretary Chase's personal invitation. The Unionist orator reciprocated by writing newspaper letters in praise of his benefactor. Moreover, through the activity of Union provost marshals and other military authorities, Northern Radicals controlled the policy of certain key newspapers in Unionist sections of the South. The *Nashville Union*, William Shreve Bailey's *Free South*, and other papers widely quoted in Northern exchanges, received both propaganda and money from the North.

The influence of Southern Unionists was also evident in the formation of widespread secret societies which were among the most important of all Union propaganda organizations. During the summer of 1861, Northern newspapers noted reports concerning "Leagues of Loyalty" in the South, and at least one correspondent compared these with the Italian Carbonari which had "kept the seed of freedom in . . . Europe for the harvest of later days." The Confederate armies suppressed the Leagues where-

ever they found them in the Southern hill-country, but a few members of these scattered societies brought their secret covenants northward when they "escaped" from the South. In Maryland and Kentucky there were secret Unionist organizations as early as the first year of the war, but it was in the Old Northwest that they first developed in strength. At a meeting on June 18, 1862, eleven men formed the first council of the Union League of America at Pekin, Illinois. After receiving the "mountaineer's oath" from a Tennessee refugee, the Pekin council appointed a traveling agent to found local councils in various parts of the state. By September there were enough members to convene a state-wide meeting for the inauguration of a grand council. This body had as chairman of its executive committee the radical publisher of the *Chicago Tribune*, Joseph Medill. John Wilson, ex-commissioner of lands for the Illinois Central railroad, was another leading promoter of the League.

Late in 1862 or early in 1863, Medill and Wilson undertook the formation of another secret society, the Strong Band, which was organized along military lines for the purpose of joining war veterans and citizens into a Radical phalanx. Appealing especially to German immigrants, a circular sent out by its national secretary explained that its title was borrowed from the German "Bund" organizations which had, in the last years of Napoleon, done much to unite the discouraged peoples of Prussia and Holland. County units of the Strong Band were styled "regiments," and to organize such a body the "colonel" was compelled to secure a commission from Chicago. Recruits were required to be eighteen years of age, but a special "Youths' Organization" was provided for young men between fourteen and eighteen years. In numbers, however, the Strong Band never approached the strength of the Union League, notwithstanding that in 1864 it was said to have had a membership of sixty thousand.

Although there was apparently no direct connection with the Illinois Union Leagues, groups of business leaders in the three largest Eastern cities proceeded to organize secret societies of a similar type during the last months of 1862. These Eastern city Leagues had in the beginning a markedly restricted membership. Furthermore, there were ultra-exclusive cliques within them. Disinterested patriotism undoubtedly prompted many business men who had not left their enterprises for the battlefield to serve in this highly respectable manner.

But some other considerations of an economic nature cannot be overlooked as sources of inspiration. The business man certainly had many reasons for displaying interest in the Union "cause." He was aware that his own economic future depended upon the stability of the Federal government; he

saw opportunities for war-profits; he believed an active propaganda would bind more closely the restive West to the Northeast; and he had begun to visualize a great new El Dorado springing from a policy of confiscation and economic imperialism in the South. Finally, a most vital reason for the business man's interest in propaganda was his desire to prevent conflict between the economic classes of the North during the unsettled days of wartime. The last-named factor was made particularly evident by a publication of the Philadelphia League styled: *About the War . . . Plain Words to Plain People by Plain Men*. ("Printed by the League for gratuitous distribution.")²

In spite of the fact that the Leagues at first were composed of exclusive groups in the large Eastern cities, the organization of the masses there was not neglected. In Philadelphia, National Union Clubs which exacted only nominal fees were formed in several wards as subsidiaries of the League. Members of the Union League Club in New York City figured largely in the creation of two great popular Leagues, the Loyal Union League and the Loyal National League. Similarly, the Boston Union Club organizers were active in bringing into existence Loyal National Leagues in that city and throughout Massachusetts. The predominant political sentiment of all these Leagues was Republican-Unionist. It was Amasa McCoy, a member of the Philadelphia Union League, who wrote to Ohio's Senator John Sherman: "This is an organization [that] . . . we trust will culminate in the election of an unconditional Union [i.e., Radical] president . . . in 1864." In New York the presence of "War Democrats" at the Leagues' mass-meetings did not disguise their partisan purpose. After the meeting of March 6, 1863, the Democratic New York *World* accused the League of attempting to disorganize the Democratic party. As proof it pointed to a Radical pamphlet which had been distributed from the speaker's platform, and to the presiding officer, the Radical New York *Evening Post's* editor, William Cullen Bryant. It was notable also that from the beginning members of Lincoln's cabinet showed interest in the Union League movement. Chase obviously was the most careful to guard his political interests with respect to it. His political allies and appointees in New York were active in founding the Radical Loyal National League in protest against the too-conservative policies of other League organizations.

² That this movement to destroy class-consciousness was not entirely successful became apparent when a laboring-class newspaper ridiculed the Boston Union Club by derisively commenting: ". . . Some four hundred and thirty members of good society in Boston have bought and fitted up a club house—cost \$75,000. . . . How many members of the 'good society' are employers who chaffer and cheapen the wages of their workmen? . . ."

Meanwhile, the larger League movement spread to all parts of the North. In Washington, D.C., during the summer of 1862 government employees learned of the League, established a local council, and dispatched agents to many states. Although the Illinois State Council granted the Washington Council its first constitution, the Washington Grand Council in effect became the head of the national League organization. The last-named body was perfected at a national convention held in Cleveland during May of 1863. At that time James M. Edmunds, Commissioner of the General Land Office and a close friend of the Radical Senator from Michigan, Zachariah Chandler, became National President. Radicals then began to write enthusiastically of the League's prospective influence upon elections. As they later discovered, however, they were overly sanguine about the League's power to control political forces. For although national memberships were 716,317 in December, 1863, the pressure of Lincoln's spoilsmen in important subordinate offices plus the centrifugal forces of local interest made the State and local councils difficult for the Radicals to control from national headquarters in Washington. Important city Leagues were among the first to support Lincoln's candidacy for re-election. The Grand Council, meeting in Baltimore on June 6, 1864 debated the President's policies, but it gave them general approval and refused to support another candidate.

Notwithstanding the limited importance of the Leagues as political bodies, their usefulness as propaganda disseminators was great. The Philadelphia League's Board of Publications collected sums from its members in excess of \$35,000; during 1863 and 1864 it produced over a million pamphlets per year. The New York and Boston Union League Clubs preferred to sponsor independent organizations known as Loyal Publications Societies. In doing this they adopted the general plan of John Murray Forbes, a New England railroad industrialist. Working at first in his own office, Forbes used his clerk as an assistant and sent printed propaganda slips to all parts of the North. But after he had mailed about 20,000 documents the task became so heavy that an organization was imperative.

Consequently a group of Boston Union Club members formed the New England Loyal Publications Society on March 10, 1863. Under the editorial direction of Charles Eliot Norton, the society sent to hundreds of newspaper editors a great quantity of broadsides. These urged the enlistment of Negro soldiers and other Radical measures. The Loyal Publications Society of New York was larger in personnel and more definite in form than the Boston group. As in Boston, however, its members belonged to the Union Club which partially financed

its publications. Save that its secretary was John Austin Stevens, Jr., officers of the New York society did not indicate any distinct factional bias other than a Republican-Unionist alignment. During April, 1863, Stevens hastened to publish a letter which Chase sent to the Loyal National League, and the Treasury Head then proceeded to distribute these pamphlets among politicians and army officers. In addition to its other activities, the New York society undertook to publish the *Army and Navy Journal*, with W. C. Church, formerly of the New York *Times*, as editor. Immediately after assuming this sponsorship, Stevens wrote to Chase, "It is very easy to see that great damage could be done if such a journal were established by ill-disposed men." The New York group's pamphlet publications also were significant. One prominent peace-Democrat complained: "You can hardly go into a public office or store but you will see such documents on the tables, counters, and even posted in the shape of handbills."

In the elections of 1863 and to a greater extent in the campaign of 1864, the Union Leagues served as campaign clubs. To illustrate: during the presidential canvass the Philadelphia Publications Committee worked harmoniously with the Republican-Union National Committee, sponsored nightly rallies, and sent out 560,000 copies of the *Union League Gazette* within six weeks. The Loyal Publication Societies printed in that period their largest number of pamphlets, and the Union League members in New York sponsored a series of mass conventions where for the moment Radicals and Conservatives joined to support Lincoln.

Nevertheless, Lincoln's re-election did not destroy factional propaganda within the Republican-Union party. Radicals were prepared to use every device that might prevent Conservatives in the North from uniting with Southerners in Congress. For this reason Radical congressmen urged confiscation and a Carthaginian peace. As before, the politician could rely on the professional propagandist for assistance in this new fight. The remorseful Horace Greeley admitted in sorrow of the churches: "I am becoming still more alienated from the religion which passes among us for orthodox and Christian. Its teachers and leading professors are loudest in the cry for bloodshed and vengeance. . . . They want to erect a gallows all over the South."

Union men in Cleveland began agitation in December, 1864, to keep alive "Union sentiment," and reorganized the Cleveland Union League. The national headquarters of the Union League of America also remained in full operation, and attempted, in January, 1865, to place its Radical president, James M. Edmunds, in Lincoln's new cabinet. Another evidence of propagandism was George L. Stearn's new league "of radical anti-slavery men of the

United States for mutual aid, encouragement, and information." Charles Sumner urged Wendell Phillips to hold the anti-slavery societies together for activity in the reconstruction era. As might be expected the Committee on the Conduct of the War's reports found ready publication in the Northern press during the spring of 1865; editorial comment on the Committee's account of Southern prison conditions urged that a people guilty of such atrocities should be punished and excluded from the Union. Finally, a Northern propagandist writing of his experiences in the South, produced an account which sold rapidly in the North as the war dragged through its last painful weeks. Concerning the Southern people the propagandist concluded:

They fear and hate us, only because we are Republican and they are not. They hate us for the same reason that aristocrats, or those who would be such, hate true Democrats the world over.—Because we are determined to enlarge the boundaries of popular rights; and because our pulpits and our press will thunder against everything which is anti-Republican wherever it is found. . . . Believe me, there is but one remedy. It is to conquer these people. . . .

The sources of Union propaganda in 1865 were, therefore, closely parallel to those of 1861. A psychological pattern laid in thirty years of pre-war agitation against slavery, factional politics, and overwhelming lust for power were leading directly to another thirty years of bitter post-war hatred. Four years of violent warfare had provided a tragically insufficient environment for a candid assessment of irrational elements in social-psychology. Still less in 1865 was there the emotional balance essential to rational cooperation and the building of a truly cooperative commonwealth. Eventually, to be sure, the flaming Radical stereotypes began to pall. Sheer weariness of the conflict's inadequacies made possible enlightened self-interest's decision to enter upon the tortuous "road to reunion." But precious time and irrevocable opportunities to make a better world had been lost.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READING

- Craven, Avery, *The Coming of the Civil War* (New York, 1942).
- Current, Richard N., *Old Thad Stevens* (Madison, Wisconsin, 1942).
- Fahrney, Ralph R., *Horace Greeley and the Tribune in the Civil War* (Cedar Rapids, Iowa, 1936).
- Foner, Philip S., *Business & Slavery* (Chapel Hill, North Carolina, 1941).
- Hesseltine, William B., "The Propaganda Literature of Confederate Prisons," *The Journal of Southern History*, 1 (1935), 56-66.
- Larson, Henrietta M., *Jay Cooke, Private Banker* (Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1936).
- Stephenson, Nathaniel W., *Lincoln* (Indianapolis, 1904).
- Ware, Edith E., "Committees of Public Information, 1863-1866," *The Historical Outlook*, X (1919), 65-67.
- Williams, Harry, *Lincoln and the Radicals* (Madison, Wisconsin, 1941).

Economics in the Curriculum

JAMES L. SMITH

Theodore Abrens Trade High School, Louisville, Kentucky

Economics does not occupy the place that it deserves in the curriculum. The value of the subject, measured in terms of effectiveness in life situations, certainly makes it worthy of an important position. It continues, however, to occupy an elective, one semester course classification, while our great need is an increased study of economics and a better type of economic education. One cannot, however, follow the status quo procedure in establishing a course in the subject. Our social and economic thinking must keep pace with the changes in our civilization. It is the function of education, knowing that students will meet and react to new situations, to anticipate these changes and prepare students for adjustments to these conditions. Organized education should be the means of conveying economic literacy to our citizens.

The practical study of economics has a worthwhile place in the program of the secondary school. Two of the fundamental aims of education—the development of understandings and appreciations—should result from a course in this subject. If our students are to face reality, while seeking security in a democratic society, they must have an understanding of the duties and privileges of civic life and a thorough realization of the economic forces that operate in determining social welfare.

Although economics is interwoven in the pattern of daily living, students usually have a limited understanding of the subject and consequently seem to have no apparent interest in it. A keener and more personal interest in the content of the course may be secured by selecting the economic activities of the students to provide learning situations. The illustrations selected should deal with simplified experiences. Situations should be set up in such a way as to present the material in the definite form desired for the practical purposes to be attained.

A basic purpose of the study of economics is to help our students make a successful adjustment to the economic world in which they will earn a living. An analysis of current economic conditions provides an abundance of material. A study of the simple aspects of contemporary society will make it possible for students to exercise judgment on the causation and consequences of social phenomena. Most of the events going on in the world are economic in nature and practically all of them have economic phases. A greater understanding of these events will result from a knowledge of economics and at the same time give more significance to the

study of the subject.

Economics is educationally valuable and necessary for all types of students and should engage a larger proportion of their time. We are all required to make choices in the quantity and type of goods we buy to satisfy our wants. Anything that the schools can do to teach a wiser use of the economic resources of the family and nation will help greatly in stabilizing the home, contribute toward the better expenditure of income, and create more capable consumers of goods.

Economic forces and economic ideas dominate the world. To live in such a world intelligently our students need to know something about it. They cannot satisfy their fundamental economic needs, their primary wants, such as food, shelter, and clothing without asking themselves for answers to these basic economic problems. Everyone, whether he is capable or not, is compelled to think about the problems of earning a living, supporting a family, and providing for the future.

Intelligent and effective citizenship in a democracy requires a knowledge of the economic principles upon which our society functions. Sooner or later, at work or at the polls, our students are called upon to pass judgment on economic issues, so as to shape and reshape the social conditions in which they earn their living. Their failure to understand them may pass the initiative into the hands of groups whose actions may quickly change the whole pattern of existence. What can be more important than the solving of economic problems through democratic action? Conflicts must be understood before intelligent citizenship can function for the welfare of our nation.

It is the responsibility of the school to see that students understand the fundamentals of our economic system and the possible alternatives to it. Ours is one of the critical periods of history. It is not possible to escape the profound economic changes that will occur as a result of the present world conflict. These changes will require a more intelligent use by more people of our present knowledge. Economic thinking will certainly be necessary in order to give satisfactory answers to the question of survival of our economic system. Our students should be studying the functions of our economic order so as to give the answers to these problems. Their knowledge of the aims of our system and of the medium for achieving these aims will be revealed in the answers.

Visual and Other Aids

MAURICE P. HUNT

Kenton High School, Kenton, Ohio

As time passes, it becomes increasingly evident that isolationism as a national policy is a matter of past history and is not likely to be revived, even with a change of political administration.

Most thinking teachers are glad to see the development of an international viewpoint among Americans. The entire sweep of history since the industrial revolution dictates such a policy. Any nation which in the future refuses to accept its international responsibilities will be both militarily and economically insecure. In addition, it will lag culturally, since it will be unable to take advantage of the free exchange of ideas among nations which a policy of international cooperation ensures.

In spite of our apparent swing away from isolationism, there is a danger that the remnants of isolationism may congeal into some sort of ultranationalistic movement. And given a few other not-impossible conditions, we might see a flourishing fascist movement of some kind on our own soil. If the winning of the war is to mean anything at all, we must forestall such a development.

We have reached a time, therefore, when the schools must develop more of an international orientation than they have had in the past. Pupils must be given opportunities to study the people, customs, institutions, and history of other nations. Through such study, pupils will come to see how much all nations and races have in common and they will thus come to feel a sense of unity with other peoples. At the same time, they will see that other nations and races have made contributions of lasting value to the world, and have developed institutions which command our admiration.

If we can provide students with a more factual understanding of other countries it should also enable us in future generations to adopt a more realistic and successful foreign policy. For example, our blind ignorance of the real nature of fascism could well have proved disastrous for us. This ignorance has already cost us untold blood, sweat, and tears.

We know from sad experience that our popular media of communication—the press, magazines, radio, and movies—have rarely given us an accurate picture of developments within other countries. And unfortunately, most of the textbooks in common use have done little better. Entirely too often textbook writers are either "for" or "against" a foreign country, and select their facts to prove their arguments. For this reason, no teacher can do a decent

job of teaching for real international understanding without the regular use of outside ideas.

Films are invaluable in the creation of international understanding. However, most of the teaching films now available are of a newsreel or travelogue nature. We need many more films which will provide factual and serious studies of the people and institutions of foreign lands. I would like to see produced a complete series of documentary films on every major country of the world. It is too bad the OWI could not have undertaken such a task.

I shall attempt to list in the remainder of this article a number of sources from which films on foreign countries may be secured, as well as giving mention to a few individual films.

1. Numerous films on Central and South America are being distributed by the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, 444 Madison Avenue, New York City. Most of these films should be available from your nearest distributor, or your State Department of Education. For a complete list of these films, either write directly to the CIAA, or refer to the Office of War Information Bulletin entitled *A List of U. S. War Information Films*. These films are mostly in color, and are 16 mm. sound film. The majority are about ten minutes in length, but a few are longer. They can be borrowed by any responsible user for a service charge not exceeding fifty cents. Perhaps the most outstanding of the CIAA films is "South of the Border With Disney," four reels in technicolor, which is a story of the trip made by Walt Disney and his crew through South and Central America. Another CIAA film which has been rated excellent is "Introduction to Haiti," one reel in technicolor.

2. Brandon Films, 1600 Broadway, New York 19, New York, can supply a number of films about other countries. Teachers should write to Dept. ES-10 for their free catalog entitled *One World*. Brandon is distributing three documentary films on Russia: "One Day in Russia," written and narrated by Quentin Reynolds; "Siege of Leningrad," narrated by Edward R. Murrow; and "Russians at War." These films are approximately one-hour long and rent for \$15 per day, which would make them prohibitive except for showing to school assemblies. A short Brandon film which sounds interesting is "One Hundred for One," a fifteen-minute film on the activities of Yugoslavian guerrilla partisan bands.

3. An illustrated catalog of films about the United Nations is obtainable for twenty-five cents from The

United Nations Information Office, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York City. This organization also publishes an interesting little magazine entitled *The War and Films*, which costs \$1.00 per year. This magazine contains news about new films relating to the war and the cause of the United Nations.

4. The American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1795 California Street, San Francisco, California, has a free catalog entitled *Films of the Pacific Area*. This catalog lists the names and sources of hundreds of films concerning nations in the Pacific area. Almost every nation or colony bordering on the Pacific is included in the list.

5. The Harmon Foundation, Inc., 140 Nassau Street, New York City, has a number of films on various countries and subjects. They have a special catalog for fifty cents. One of their rental films which has been rated as excellent is "Forgotten Village," a sixty-minute 16 mm. sound film. It is the dramatization of a story by John Steinbeck about a Mexican boy who fights for the new ways of science against the old ways of ignorance and superstition.

6. The British Library of Information, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City, supplies films about the Allied Nations. One of their films is "Soviet School Child," a two-reel sound film depicting the training given Russian children from nursery school through college. This same film is available from a number of other sources, including the Extension Division, University of Indiana, the Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Wash-

ington, and the Bell and Howell Company, mentioned elsewhere in this article.

7. Artkino Pictures, Inc., 723 Seventh Avenue, New York City, have numerous sound films with English titles on Soviet Russia, the Far East, Siberia, the Caucasus and Turkestan. These films are available for a nominal rental fee.

8. Burton Holmes Films, Inc., 7510 North Ashland Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, have a travel-talk series of films on various countries, including Ethiopia, Egypt, Belgium, Holland and France. They have films either for rent or purchase.

9. Bell and Howell Company, 1801 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, has numerous films on foreign countries.

10. The American Museum of Natural History, Department of Education, Central Park West at 79th Street, New York City, has numerous films on foreign countries, their life and industries.

11. Edited Pictures System, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street, New York City, has films on various countries at nominal rental fees.

12. The Swedish Travel Information Bureau, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue, New York City, has a number of one- and two-reel sound films showing life and industries in Sweden. These are available at very low cost.

13. The OWI, whose films are available from any distributor, has a few films on foreign countries. Their "Report from Russia" depicts the strength inherent in the Russian people and industry.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Head, Social Studies Department, Girard College, Philadelphia

OUR FORM OF GOVERNMENT

The 13-page insert on "The United States in a New World: V. Our Form of Government" which appeared in the November issue of *Fortune* is an able critique of American government. A committee of editors of *Time*, *Life*, and *Fortune*, believing that the time has come for a new era in political thought comparable to that of the eighteenth century, appraise the task and suggest what they think must be done to fit our government to the conditions of our age.

The task is the old one of insuring national security and domestic justice. But it confronts us in a society attired in the new habiliments of a technological era and the tight jacket of one world neighborhood. If our democratic government proves unable to cope with the problems of such a society, another govern-

ment, probably totalitarian, will be set up to do it.

To perform the task our government, of Topsy-like growth, needs to be streamlined. The executive branch should be reorganized, strengthening and unifying the administration of international relations and the fiscal policy which sustains all political action. A corresponding strengthening and unifying of Congress is necessary, else democracy may be menaced by an over-powering executive. Efforts must be redoubled to secure abler personnel for government service. And, as the balance wheel of federalism, local initiative and self-government must be cultivated.

These matters are discussed at length by the editors. They have faith in the political genius of the American people, a genius nowhere surpassed. They agree with Lincoln that:

Our form of government is still what he called "the last best hope of earth," the great and famous example of government by the people. The rest of mankind watches our hundred-and-fifty-four-year-old experiment with skepticism and desperate hope. If government by the people succeeds here, it has a better chance elsewhere; if not, its chances elsewhere are dubious indeed. The challenge to our form of government is one with the challenge to Western civilization, of which it is a most conspicuous part. But because it is self-government, it can only survive if men prove good enough and wise enough to support it and make it work. Our form of government throws that challenge to civilization back on the individual man. In proving that they can govern themselves, men will prove that they can be both moral and free.

POSTWAR EDUCATION

Those who have been following the discussions of education in the postwar world will be interested in the series of articles on postwar planning which *The Nation's Schools* initiated in the November issue by a brief introductory statement: "Blueprint for Postwar Education." The blueprint is one which has been referred to here several times, namely, the recommendations of the National Resources Planning Board. The statement lists the sixteen items of the Board's plan for providing every child with a "justifiable minimum education."

FINANCING AMERICA'S FUTURE

In his final article (*The Nation*, October 23) on "Financing America's Future," Stuart Chase holds that we have "Nothing To Fear But Fear." We are in a transition to an economy of abundance. At least such an economy beckons us. Full employment is possible in the new order, but several fears stand in the way.

We fear inflation if government is required to underwrite full employment. Yet we know enough to keep inflation in check. We fear a crushing burden of debt. Unlike private debt, a nation's debt is owed to itself. It is an investment reservoir. It need not over-inflate the currency nor unduly favor the higher income brackets if the nation uses a well-planned system of taxes.

We fear bureaucracy. This is largely a bugaboo. Is Bell Telephone or any other great corporation less bureaucratic than government? The dangers in bureaucracy can be controlled by the use, wherever possible, of private enterprise instead of government action. A companion fear is paternalism, yet economic security will breed fewer moral abuses than now are bred by our slums and depressions. Nor need we

fear that material progress will end. Invention now is subsidized by Big Business. It can always be encouraged.

We still have the medieval fear that one must lose if another gains. Ford showed that high wages and low prices add up to good profits. Management and labor both made more, and high profits did not rule out high wages. When the community has more purchasing power, business profits. The principle may not work in the small sphere of an isolated business, but it does work on a community scale. The principle did not have free rein before the industrial revolution because production was limited and wealth therefore was limited also. We cannot see the limits of our present productive abilities. We can produce amply enough for all, if only we put all to work and supply them with purchasing power.

Finally, we fear the common people, the masses. Science tells us that inferiorities and superiorities are found in all classes and races. Democracy, education, economic security, and health assurance will change the status and outlook for the masses. The fear is a bogey within our power to lay.

If we have confidence and have faith in the possibility of achieving an economy of abundance, we can do it. Ours is a great transition period "where human beings conditioned to scarcity are trying to adjust themselves to the technological facts of plenty."

FOOD AND CHILDREN

The food problem, now and in the troubled days when we struggle to disengage national economies from wartime production and gear them into peacetime work, is one of our major concerns. Food in war and peace is the subject of the first four articles of *The Survey Graphic* for November. The OPA and food rationing, the recent United Nations Conference at Hot Springs (Va.), and nutrition and nutrition-teaching are discussed in ways enlightening to older high school youth.

Later, in the same issue, Otto Zoff described with great feeling the condition of children the world over, today ("They Are All Our Children"). The article is an excerpt from his recent book on the subject. Dorothy Canfield Fisher says of it, "This heart-wringing Book of Martyrs is also a golden Book of Heroes." Young people will be moved by this article to a powerful awareness of a world problem.

Another related article is "World Food Plans" which appeared in *Fortune* for November. It describes some of the efforts being made to give reality to the conclusions of the Hot Springs Conference. A United Nations Interim Commission on Food and Agriculture is attempting to develop the necessary international machinery for actually achieving global freedom from want. It is planning a Permanent Or-

ganization on Food and Agriculture which may be at work within a year if accepted by the United Nations. [This organization was provided by the establishment, last November, of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, with former Governor Herbert H. Lehman as its Director.]

Two-thirds of mankind are still occupied with the production of food. Freedom from want is therefore a major global concern. How to achieve it poses a set of problems both complex and difficult. For millions of people nutrition needs and food production are brought together only by purchasing power. We are nowhere near the solution of this problem, as Indian famine testifies. There is a French saying that half the Chinese spend their lives starving to death. Our own Bureau of Home Economics declares that a third of our nation is deficient in its nutrition. Malthus is not dethroned yet. World food production is less than that required for the adequate nutrition of mankind. "As long as income lays an iron belt around the waist of food consumption, it is of little help to know how much a person needs to be healthy, or how to increase food output. . . ."

The article shows the variations in the intensity of the problem, from the Asiatic half of mankind most undernourished to the more fortunate peoples of the Americas. It discusses various schemes for meeting the problem and points out the difficulties.

STUDENT GOVERNMENT

A helpful discussion of student government was presented in *The Clearing House* for October. C. C. Harvey compiled "The 20 Questions on Student Government" which are most frequently found in the files of the National Association of Student Councils. Mr. Harvey formerly was secretary of that association. Charles F. Allen, experienced in student-council work and an associate editor of *The Clearing House*, gives answers to the questions.

The questions and answers cover such phases of student government as the reasons for it; organization and functions; bases for success; the relation of pupil, teacher, and administration to the student council; the actual machinery of operation; and where to get information.

CITY PLANNING

In its issue for November, *Fortune* magazine initiated a series of articles on urban planning and its promise for the future. The first article sought to clarify what city planning is: "City Planning: Battle of the Approach." Later articles will discuss its evolution, problems, procedures, goals, and setting in the working machinery of the community.

Planners are not agreed upon what planning is. Some regard it as the job of correcting specific urban evils. They would provide good housing for bad,

relieve traffic congestion, build adequate recreation facilities. Others reject the piece-meal view, and insist upon a comprehensive plan for the entire community. They see planning in terms of a master strategic plan for the whole campaign and not simply as a matter of tactics for winning specific battles.

The article in *Fortune* is written from the strategy viewpoint. The problem of planning in terms of land use in the large, that is the use of the urban land and the surrounding areas that really are one with it, is examined. Such planning is contrary to our tradition of laissez faire and is therefore rarely undertaken in this country. A beginning has been made in Europe, however. The garden city and the city beautiful were attempts which experience proved to be only partial city plans and not plans embracing all of urban life. Slum clearance and public-works programs likewise proved to be partial answers to the problem of comprehensive urban planning. The articles in this series promise to be of great use to all who study problems of modern urban life.

FUTURE OF THE NEGRO

A special 20-page section was included in *The New Republic* for October 18 on the subject of "The Negro: His Future in America." In view of the importance of interracial and intercultural relations if genuine peace is to follow the war, the American Negro problem is especially significant. This special section in *The New Republic* is of timely value for classes studying the social problems of the day.

Again, in the discussion, the bugaboo of White racial superiority is laid and the great anthropologists are quoted. Summaries are given of what the Negro is doing today in industry, in the armed forces, and in politics. The upshot reveals the progress he is making despite all handicaps. Yet there is so much that still remains to be done before justice and truth will prevail in the treatment of and attitude toward these fellow citizens of ours.

An article related to this discussion appeared in the November issue of *The Survey Graphic*, where Virginius Dabney, distinguished Southern editor, tells how "The South Marches On." He does not regard the Negro problem in America as hopeless. On the contrary he points to many signs, in bi-racial conferences and other activities, of genuine progress toward its solution.

PAN AMERICAN ACTION

Professor Karl Loewenstein of Amherst College sees greater Pan American solidarity brought nearer as a result of the famous Rio de Janeiro Conference of 1942. In "Pan Americanism in Action," an article in the November number of *Current History*, he gives reasons for believing that the machinery for genuine hemisphere federation is foreshadowed in

the workings of a committee set up at the behest of the Conference.

The problem of defending the democracies of this hemisphere against nazism led to the creation of the Emergency Committee for Political Defense, the CPD, with headquarters at Montevideo. Seven American nations were authorized to name members to it, while all the republics appointed special liaison officers to link them with the Committee. The members of the Committee neither represent their states nor act on instructions from their state governments. A member may, in fact, act contrary to the wishes of his own state. The members represent all the republics rather than a given constituency. This federal principle is revolutionary in Pan American action. And it is revolutionary for the CPD to deal with states through special, liaison officers and not through the regular diplomatic channels.

Thus far, most of the energies of the CPD have been directed toward combating the Axis menace to American political systems. But the success of the Committee augurs well for the establishment of similar agencies which will cope with postwar problems. The work of the CPD testifies to the value of the philosophy and machinery of an international agency which represents all the American republics. The CPD may contain, said Professor Loewenstein, "the first promising germs of an incipient federation of the Western Hemisphere." Its members, while actually drawn from a few states, have represented all and the Committee itself has acted as an executive organ of all the American nations. In any event, the CPD is an unusual American innovation.

DAWN OF CIVILIZATION

Clark Wissler, distinguished American anthropologist, presented an excellent popular account of the beginnings of civilization, in *Natural History* for November. Although his article on "Wheat and Civilization" suggests the important role of that grain, he associates civilization with cattle raising and agriculture.

The deltas of the Nile, Tigris-Euphrates, and Indus rivers, each flanking desert and arid reaches and each flooded annually, supported wild grains; such herbivorous animals as cattle, sheep, donkeys, and swine; and man and other hunting animals. After tens of thousands of years man finally found how, in these crowded regions, to tame some of the grasses and animals he hunted. Before the rise of agriculture, the human population of the globe probably did not exceed that of New York City today. Then it rose quickly with the increased food supply in those valleys.

Behind this tremendous revolution lay the great inventions of the few thousand years before. These Dr. Wissler depicts in a chart. The more than a score

of notable illustrations, including maps as well as the chart of inventions, add distinction to an account which is especially clarifying for young readers. It emphasizes how astonishing was the revolution in human life which took place between c. 7000-4000 B.C.

HIGH SCHOOL AMERICAN HISTORY

Professor Carl G. F. Franzén of Indiana University has felt for some time that the American history textbook, placed in the hands of the average pupil of the junior high school, was not suited to him. The topics and the treatment differed so little from those of the textbooks of the senior high school that the texts could be interchanged "and no one would be the wiser."

In *The School Review* for November, Professor Franzén described a little experiment he made with a few eighth and eleventh grade pupils to find out whether the textbook materials were within the grasp of the ordinary student ("American History: A Study in Placement"). Concepts and expressions common in American history were not understood in two-thirds of the cases on the junior high school level and in half the cases on the senior high school level.

Bright students may make a better showing, but the child of average intelligence is muddled in his comprehension of the concepts and expressions in his textbook. Problems given youngsters to discuss in classrooms often would tax learned men, and the discussions do not result in real understanding. Do we know what should go into a textbook on the junior high school level? The senior high school level?

Although Professor Franzén hazards an answer, his principal service is in pointing his finger at a problem.

WE ARE ANCESTORS

Gerald W. Johnson, distinguished publicist and author, wrote an inspiring article—"For Ancestors Only"—for the November 20 issue of *The Saturday Review of Literature*. At times we look back longingly at the great days of Periclean Athens, Caesar's Rome, the Renaissance, or the time of Napoleon, while we bemoan the terrible times into which birth has thrust us. Our day, suggests Mr. Johnson, is one of the greatest in all history.

The deeds of individual heroes adorn the record of history. But the history of our time will record the heroism of the common people in China, in Russia, in Britain, and elsewhere. In the cause of liberty the common folk have endured the worst that scientific implements of war can inflict. Stalingrad, London, and Chungking are symbols of human sacrifice. Our descendants will be able to point to us, their ancestors, as heroic figures in the battle for liberty.

This is the thesis which Mr. Johnson develops in moving language. Older youth will likely be able to grasp his meaning and will be stirred by his appreciation of the greatness of the cause to which we are dedicated.

GOALS FOR POSTWAR DEMOCRACY

The November number of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* consisted of articles on "Social Goals for Postwar Democracy." The first two articles dealt with the American social security plan as set forth in the National Resources Planning Board's report on *Security, Work, and Relief Policies* and with a thoughtful critique of it. Dr. Eveline M. Burns, who described the plan, was closely identified with its preparation. She showed how any full-employment program must rest upon security and relief provisions for those who, for many reasons, are not or cannot be employed. Dr. McConnell of New York University sympathetically presented the shortcomings of the plan from the standpoint of a sociologist.

Other articles told how to provide "Solidarity and Security for the European Teaching Profession" through the use of a Security Institute for European Educators and investigated the possibilities of an "International Education Office" as an instrument for promoting world peace. "A Selected Bibliography on Postwar Goals and Reconstruction," with descriptive comment, concluded the issue.

Much of the discussion about the postwar world continues necessarily to be in broad terms. These articles were purposely specific and concrete as a contribution toward the practical implementation of the general ideas and goals with which we have been preoccupied.

TRANSPORTATION

"Transportation: War and Postwar" is the subject of twenty-eight articles in the November number of *The Annals of The American Academy of Political and Social Science*. Conditions and problems of transport, by land and sea and air, are studied in relation to the war, with especial reference to the United States, Canada, Great Britain, and Russia. Seven articles depict the transport problems which the world will face after hostilities end.

The discussion of the problem was not confined to its technical features. The concern, rather, was with its impact upon the lives of all of us. To shed light upon the general welfare aspect, many persons who were not experts in the transport field were invited to contribute to the discussion. Among them were businessmen, economists, lawyers, government officials, heads of trade associations, and personnel specialists. Although complete treatment of the problem was not attempted, these articles together make an unusually thorough canvass of a subject whose public importance is much greater than is the public's active interest in it.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD H. McFEELY

The George School, George School, Pennsylvania

All Out for Freedom. Edited by Marian Rhoads. New York: Ginn and Company, 1943. Pp. ix, 181. \$1.00.

There is little about war with its death, starvation, disease, destruction, misery, waste, suffering and sorrow that thrills or inspires. War, especially this modern global war, is all and more than Sherman described it when he said, "War is hell." From out of the gruesome details of men fighting, being wounded, and dying, and of the wholesale destruction of vast cities, smaller towns and villages, and irreplaceable natural resources, there are stories, interesting, sometimes thrilling, occasionally inspirational of a sacrificial devotion to duty, of personal valor, of courageous intelligent action, and of cooperation and teamwork. It is with such narratives that this small volume deals. Marian Rhoads has selected carefully from the number of such accounts which have already come out of World War II an

interesting compilation of some of the best of these tales of heroism. They bring into vivid relief the stories of men and women who have already performed unusual exploits, men like Major General Mark W. Clark, Lieutenant Edward O'Hare, General Claire Chennault, and women like Lieutenant Lyudmila Pavlichenko of the Army of the U.S.S.R. Tales of the feats of groups of men, such as the crew of a Flying Fortress, the pilots and the fighters of the Flying Tigers, the Commandos, sailors who were afloat for days after the torpedoing of their ship, of tank crews, and of the workers on the home front are interestingly told.

This little book is quite suitable for use in either the junior or senior high school and could do much to enrich the study of current events or the Second World War. The reviewer hopes that the author or some other person will compile a similar anthology of stories about men and women who will be de-

voting their lives to the great but often much less glamorous task of reconstruction and rebuilding, at home and abroad, after this war is over.

R. H. McF.

Bills of Rights in American History. By Leila Roberta Custard. Los Angeles: The University of Southern California Press, 1942. Pp. 48. 50 cents.

During a period when American citizens are giving up—temporarily it is hoped—many of their democratic rights and privileges, it is helpful to turn to a study of this kind to refresh the memory of the development of these important aspects of American democratic life. The author states the two-fold purposes of this monograph as follows "... to discover the origin and trace the development of the bill of rights as an important part of Anglo-Saxon institutions, and to determine to what extent American bills of rights record the development of American democracy and democratic ideals." After a definition of a bill of rights, the author gives a short, concise, and interesting history of the development of such bills of rights from ancient times down to the present. This is followed by a short analytical study of the development of bills of rights for free Americans in which the period from 1776 to 1933 is divided into seven periods for purposes of aiding in this study. The final chapter, "Past, Present, and Future of American Bills of Rights," summarizes in general terms the previous chapter, and then points to some of the factors, forces, and demands that will effect any rewriting or additions to the bills of rights now in vogue. An excellent bibliography is appended, and a chronological listing of declarations of rights made during colonial times concludes this treatise.

Such a study as this should prove very helpful to teachers of American history especially, although its usefulness is not confined to this field. It brings together a short, authentic, carefully written history of the backgrounds and development of one of the most important aspects of democratic government.

R. H. McF.

China's Gifts to the West. By Derk Bodde. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. vi, 40. 35 cents.

Teachers of history usually point to the things—ideas, words, art, literature, drama, and material things—for which the western civilized world is indebted to ancient Greece and Rome. In America, also, we look appreciatively to our heritage from Europe. Certainly our culture would be a different, and perhaps, a poorer one without these. Too often, teachers do not show their pupils the gifts from the cultures and peoples of Asia. Many of the things which we use regularly, which we miss most under

conditions of severe restriction of rationing, and which are important as they contribute to our comfort and standard of living, came from China. How different our world would be without tea, porcelain, paper, printing, lacquers, playing cards, dominoes, and other things, the early beginnings of which are traceable to China.

The author of this small, interesting monograph sets forth a brief historical background of each of the main contributions of China to the West, and sketches in succinctly and skilfully its adoption and adaptation to European life. He points out that "our present ideals and way of living are not the product of any one race, any single civilization, or any particular position of the earth's surface. They have developed out of the contributions made by many lands and peoples . . . this often requires that we change our attitudes toward other people and customs. . . . Herein lies the hope for a flowering of civilization such as has never yet been seen."

Teachers in junior and senior high schools who want to help their pupils understand better our great ally in the Far East, and who want their pupils to be aware of our indebtedness to China will find this a very useful source of materials.

R. H. McF.

Personal Problems and Morale. By John B. Geisel, Under the Editorship of Francis T. Spaulding. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1943. Pp. vii, 435. Illustrated. \$1.80.

High school courses in guidance, orientation, or personal problems are so recent that there has been little time for the development of many good texts in this field. And conversely, the lack of suitable textbooks within the realm of understanding of the high school student as been a major reason for the slow introduction of such courses into the high school curriculum. The publication, therefore, of *Personal Problems and Morale* is highly welcome at this time. After years of what must have been a most interesting and gratifying experience in classroom experimentation, Mr. Geisel has written a text which should become a landmark in guidance education.

This book is superior to most other texts in its field because it is practical, not theoretical; lucid, not obscure; forthright, not evasive. It discusses with frankness and directness the things which students want to know, and it assumes that high school students are mature enough to comprehend and utilize many basic principles of psychology when explained in language of their level and in terms of their own experience.

The text is based on the premise that a student can solve his personal problems in personality growth, character development, mental health, and life's major decisions by self-analysis and application

to the task. With this premise in mind, the author has divided his book into three broad divisions: (1) "Knowing More About Yourself"; (2) "Getting Along With Others"; and (3) "Making Your Way in Time of War."

The first division is concerned mainly with the psychology of personal growth. In simple language the author leads the student to an understanding of the motivating drives of life and the influence of these drives on his behavior. He learns that the desires to live, to love, to be with people, to excel, and to believe in something are powerful motivating forces which may impel one to desirable or to undesirable activity. He learns, too, that one need not be ashamed of fear; that anger can be dissipated in hard physical work; that love shows itself, not in jealousy but in unselfishness; that happiness can be learned; and that wonder can be creative; in fact, that all of the emotions can be of great use if controlled, but can be destructive when given free reign.

The reader is made aware of the need to recognize his abilities—mental, mechanical, and social. He is given hints on utilizing his abilities to the fullest extent; and he learns, perhaps with relief, that high intelligence is not essential for great success. In an analysis of inferiority and compensation devices, the author gives the student an insight into his behavior and some good hints on maintaining mental health.

The second division of the book deals with the student's social development. Here he learns the value of getting along with people and the means of succeeding in this effort. Such subjects as boy and girl relationships, home life, marriage, children, etiquette, and social conformity are discussed. These are subjects which a young person is eager to study, for they pertain to some of the most important problems which he is now facing. Nearly every student has asked himself these questions: Should he disobey his parents? Should he go out three nights a week? Should he kiss the girl good night? Should he consider her for marriage? What makes a happy home? Such are the problems which this section considers.

In the third division, the author discusses the individual's part in maintaining the nation's morale in war time and the relationship of the young person's future—his job and schooling—to the war effort. What should be his responsibility in war time? How do his thoughts, his attitudes, and his actions affect the winning of the war and the peace to come? Should he plan for a career in the armed services or in a war industry? Or, should he continue his education for a profession or vocation which he had decided on before the war? These questions, of course, are not answered, but an effort is made to help the student find an answer to them.

Besides the well written contents, the text has a

Presenting today's economic problems—

SMITH'S ECONOMICS

New Sixth Edition

A timely treatment of economics, giving students real understanding of recent changes in economic life and the problems created by the war. Deals specifically with problems of lend-lease, war controls, taxation, labor and industry. Complete learning activities follow each chapter. \$1.68

Write for further information

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, INC.

330 West 42nd Street

New York 18, N.Y.

set of excellent teaching aids. In nearly every chapter there are several case studies to illustrate the principles presented. Well chosen pictures and cartoons enliven and enlighten. And, at the end of every chapter, there are many fine suggestions for classroom discussion, provocative exercises and activities for the individual student to carry out, and an excellent set of readings in literature and education related to the subject under consideration.

The mere reading of this book is certain to stimulate the average student to think about himself and to inspire him with the desire to improve himself. Even the teacher, reminded of the many influences affecting young people or of psychological principles long forgotten, will be moved to re-evaluate his own attitudes and behavior toward his students, and in his personal life as well.

This reviewer believes that *Personal Problems and Morale* is an outstanding contribution to the field of guidance education.

LEO LITZKY

Central High School
Newark, New Jersey

Towards A Better World. By Horace G. Hix, Warren T. Kingsbury and Truman G. Reed. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1943. Pp. xii, 500. \$1.80.

Towards a Better World aims to provide junior high school students "with an understanding of the principles for which America is fighting and of the important role which they as individuals should play now and later if the dream of a better world is to become a reality." Throughout the ages man has had four basic desires: To have security; to enjoy the earth's products; to win the approval of his fellow men; and to gratify his senses. The system whereby he provides himself with these basic desires is known as democracy. It has taken many generations and centuries to develop the democratic system as we know it today. So far it is the best answer to man's demands or expectations of life.

This textbook is modern in every sense. It presents a problem, discusses it, gives an example for illustration, then it leads the student, by means of questions, to a possible solution by logical reasoning.

The text is divided into four sections. The first shows how democracy developed. It shows the contributions of "Athens, Rome, Christianity, the Renaissance, and England; the growth of democracy in the United States; the status of democracy in the world today; the essential difference and conflicts between fascism and democracy; and youth's obligation to defend and extend democracy."

The second section aims to "make clear the role of the school in developing democratic citizenship." The students learn how democracy works by organizing in their classrooms and carrying on their school affairs under faculty supervision.

Section three deals with the "understandings, skills, and attitudes which citizens of a democracy should have." The chapters included within this section speak for themselves:

"Thinking About Ourselves"

"How Problems Are Solved"

"Understanding the Other Fellow"

The fourth section is an activity section. The authors suggest that "at least half the time allotted to the study of this text" be spent on this activity section. The basic aims of men are dealt with concretely. One chapter is entitled "Social Approval Is Easy" and discusses man's desire to be liked by his fellow men. This chapter is plentifully illustrated both with pictures and incidents. Throughout this section questions are asked by the authors but the answers are to be given by the students.

The material in this textbook is presented to the students in such a way that their interest should be caught and held to a greater extent than the more familiar text that is full of facts and little else. This text also provides many suggestions that the teacher may use as research or for advanced students.

GRACE DAVIS

Glenside, Pennsylvania

Discovering Ourselves: A View of the Human Mind and How It Works. By Edward A. Strecker, Kenneth E. Appel and John W. Appel. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943. Pp. xix, 434. \$3.00.

Teachers in American schools today are finding more and more need for a working knowledge of human psychology and mental hygiene. The stresses in the lives of boys and girls produced by the war, the speed up and increased complexity of our daily living, the breakdown of many homes, and the uncertainties of the future have caused many problems in schools and out which teachers are called upon to deal with. A book of this kind offers valuable guidance to teachers faced with such problems.

This is a revised edition of a popular book which first appeared about a decade ago. It is simply and clearly written, replete with practical examples of each principle it explains, and written with a minimum number of technical terms so that even those with a minimum amount of psychological training can read it with benefit. Schematic presentations of some of the basic concepts, i.e., conscious, unconscious, rationalizations, and the like, add to the ease with which such concepts are understood.

Three new chapters add greatly to the value and usefulness of this book to teachers: Emotion: Its Nature; Anger; and Fear.

Questions at the end of the book help the reader test his understanding of each chapter, and increase the usefulness of the book for classroom work.

There is no index, which is regrettable, but a detailed table of contents, and the fact that each chapter is devoted to a single topic compensates somewhat for this lack.

This book is to be highly recommended to teachers who need help in understanding the behavior of their pupils, particularly that which deviates from the expected.

R. H. McF.

The Cotton Industry. By Josephine Perry. New York: Longman's, Green and Company, 1943. Pp. xii, 124. Photographs. \$1.75.

Josephine Perry tells the story of the growth of the cotton industry by first giving the reader a historical background of the raw material as one finds it today in the South. This introduction is written in an interesting style which would be appealing to students of the junior high school age level.

The growth of this vast industry is told as a story of the people who come in contact with it. The suspicion they held of the cotton gin, and the doubt of the new American cotton, and the fear of its effect on the British cotton business, are all explained as factors in the development of this great industry as it is today. Although the author makes her early chapters

Announcing

OUR GLOBAL WORLD

By GRACE CROYLE HANKINS

Distances are shrinking; age-old barriers of mountains, oceans, and deserts have less significance. Tomorrow's world will be an air-age world.

Your students are tomorrow's men and women. "Our Global World" is a new brief Geography for the Air Age. It looks forward to tomorrow and at the same time takes into consideration the realities of today.

In picture and text this new book briefly but clearly discusses map reading, topography, climate, weather, natural regions, populations, economic development, and natural resources of the world, all points of which are but a few days away from your airport.

More than one hundred photographs and maps, some of them full-page, make this brief course timely and exciting.

For supplementary use in any social-science course. Use it now.

Examination copy, \$1 postpaid; regular list price, \$1.32

THE GREGG PUBLISHING COMPANY

New York

Chicago

San Francisco

Boston

Toronto

London

*An important new series for your junior high school
or upper grades social studies program*

AMERICA AT WORK

WINGS for
AMERICA
MACHINES
for
AMERICA
POWER for
AMERICA

By Marshall Dunn
and Lloyd N. Morrisett

THIS is social studies material presented from an eminently practical point of view. No better instrument could be found to give young people today an appreciation of the tools and resources with which they may build in the future. Interest will run high, but above all, the series achieves lasting values in developing an appreciation of the satisfactions and opportunities of the American way of life.

World Book Company

Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York 2126 Prairie Avenue, Chicago 16

a story of the people, she does not deal with the social or economic problem of the cotton farmer as it is today. Her purpose is to explain the growth and development of the cotton industry. In a clear and concise manner the reader becomes convinced of the magnitude and importance of an industry on which one-third of the American farmers and thousands of others depend for a life's work.

In the latter chapter the processing of cotton is described in detail. Here the student meets a new vocabulary as the author used the technical vocabulary of the industry. It is readable for students as young as junior high school and its content is useable at any age. Some chapters, especially those on breeding and processing, could be used in a general science class as well as a social science class.

The reader is introduced simply to the laws of economic supply and demand as well as marketing and international trade and the effect these factors have on the cotton industry.

The book is not dated by the present crises although mention is made of the added burden put on the cotton farmer by the present war. The content would be of use in class work even if the war should end suddenly.

FRANCES T. PASCHALL

George School, Pennsylvania

The Steel Industry. By Josephine Perry. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1943. Pp. xii, 120. \$1.75.

Josephine Perry's sixth book in her series of *America at Work* tells of the growth and development of steel. Her purpose is to acquaint the student with this vast industry so important to American life.

The growth of the industry is explained by a brief history of iron production and its usefulness to man through the ages. As each step toward the production of steel is explained the name of the metallurgist, skilled worker, or chemist responsible for the pioneer work is given and the student learns of the contribution made to American life by men little known in history.

The development of the industry is a technical and complex subject which the author has handled in a simple outline style well within the grasp of a junior high school student. All technicalities are omitted wherever possible, but much of the vocabulary of the industry remains as the story of steel is told from mining of the ore until it is an ingot mechanically treated, rolled and sent to one or more of the various mills.

A chapter on research explains to the student that the development of steel has just begun as the technical world makes more demands and the quality of steel must be made to meet the rigid requirements.

This book should be useful in a community where the steel industry or some phase of the industry dominates the occupational life. It would also be useful in a science class or wherever a particular study of industry is needed.

Students will enjoy the attractively arranged book with its photographs, index and simple treatment of material.

FRANCES T. PASCHALL

George School, Pennsylvania

Modern World Geography. By Earl C. Case and Daniel R. Bergsmark. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1943. Pp. x, 746. \$2.20.

Modern World Geography by Case and Bergsmark is a revision of a previous edition of this text published in 1938 under the same name.

In recognition of the growing importance of global geography, the cover design has been changed from an outline showing a factory to the outline of the globe. One other concession has been made to this trend toward global thinking—a map labelled "Air-Age Map of the World" has been included. The value of the map shown on page 2 of the text is most pictorial . . . the particular map projection used is unidentified. Although the caption refers to the importance of "the new air-age geography" and the necessity of a "clear understanding of global geography" actually no changes have been made in the text to develop a global geography viewpoint. In the chapter on "Foreign Commerce," the six-line paragraph on "Airways" is identical in both editions—perhaps adequate in 1938, scarcely so in 1943.

Tables and their accompanying captions have been adjusted to represent more recent figures. Some changes in statistics quoted in the text have also been made. Revision of the textual material is evident in the discussion of Norway and Sweden and the Asiatic countries of Japan, Burma, and India. Revision of most European lands to date is, of course, virtually impossible. One wonders, in the discussion on textiles, why nylon is not mentioned. This synthetic silk is an important air age development. It certainly would be sadly missed by the United Nations in aerial warfare equipment.

This *Modern World Geography* is still a very good world geography but not by any means a global geography.

GRACE CROYLE HANKINS

Wilson High School
Camden, New Jersey

Intercultural Education in American Schools. By William E. Vickery and Stewart G. Cole. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943. Pp. xviii, 214. \$1.00.

The United States is a nation of nations, the world

By Preston Slosson

AFTER THE WAR — WHAT?

★ THIS BOOK aims to state in orderly fashion the economic, social, and political problems which peace will bring and the questions which must be settled, if peace is to be anything but another Armistice between World Wars. It discusses, as fairly and impartially as is humanly possible, the principal suggestions for making a durable peace which thoughtful patriots have brought forward.

★ It is particularly important that discussion of these problems find a place in the curriculum of the schools, for upon the shoulders of present-day students will fall, a short time hence, the democratic responsibility of helping to decide the sort of world we will build and live in during the postwar years.

AFTER THE WAR—WHAT? is a companion volume to the widely used WHY WE ARE AT WAR by the same author.

CHAPTER TITLES

1. When the Guns Stop
2. Between War and Peace
3. Freedom from Want
4. America's Place in the World
5. The New Map of Europe
6. The New Map of the World
7. Freedom from Fear

vi + 86 pages

Paper covers.

56 cents

HOUGHTON MIFFLIN COMPANY

Boston

New York

Chicago

Dallas

Atlanta

San Francisco

Books for Our Times

War with the Axis

• Defending Our Freedom •

CHARLES T. MCFARLANE
Formerly Professor of Geography
Teachers College, Columbia

This America

Our Land • Our People
Our Faith • Our Defense

HOWARD E. WILSON, *Graduate School of Education, Harvard*
NELLE E. BOWMAN, *Director of Social Studies, Tulsa, Okla.*
ALLEN Y. KING, *Directing Supervisor of Social Studies, Cleveland*

American
Book
Company

Sociology
Principles and Problems

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD
Professor of Sociology
Duke University

in microcosm. We find in our country representatives of some sixty nations, races, and religions. Under our democratic form of government we have learned a great deal about living together. Yet today there are strong tensions, potential and open conflicts between some of these groups within our borders. The advancement of American democracy demands that we learn how to eliminate these strains which result, too often, from injustices and persecutions of various minority groups in our nation. To attain a just and durable peace after this war requires that we abolish all undemocratic features of our group life.

This very helpful book is the first of a series designed to help teachers "deal constructively with the problem of intercultural and interracial tensions among our people." Its approach is new and vigorous, its content is thorough and sound from an academic point of view, and it provides the teacher with a wealth of factual materials and suggestions about programs for those who want to do something constructive in this area of our living. The bibliography is broad and varied, the index full.

The chapter headings will give the reader a good idea of the general usefulness of this small volume. The six chapters are: A Culture Approach to American Education; Towards Cultural Democracy; Planning a Program of Intercultural Education; Selecting and Organizing Classroom Materials for Intercultural Education; Methods and Techniques in Intercultural Education; Important Concepts in Intercultural Education.

This reviewer would like to stress the great usefulness of this book to teachers and pupils at the secondary school level. The last chapter in which terms such as Cultural Democracy, Culture, Race, Acculturation are defined has a very important part to play in this book. The book is well worth the cost to any teacher who takes his responsibilities in this phase of American life seriously.

R. H. McF.

Consumer Education: Background, Present Status, and Future Possibilities. Edited by James E. Mendenhall and Henry Harap. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943. Pp. x, 399.

Education must give increasing attention to the development of accurate understandings and desirable attitudes in the field of economic relationships. One such relationship is that in which the consumer plays the leading role, therefore, educators should give more thought and devote more time to educating consumers, adult and juvenile, than is usually the case. The problems facing the consumer during war time and those that will face him in the post war period demand that the schools do more than usual in this field.

In this compact volume teachers from the junior high school level through the adult education groups will find much to enhance their work in this important field. Twenty-two individuals of wide experience have contributed to this volume edited by James E. Mendenhall and Henry Harap. They go far beyond the concept of consumer education as being concerned primarily with testing materials and reading consumer pamphlets and bulletins. They discuss the importance to consumers of such things as taxation and tariffs, economic and political influence of producer groups, buying insurance, public health and the like.

There are several chapters devoted to specific and helpful suggestions as to what teachers in elementary schools can do about this important problem of living, and of the contribution of various subject-matter fields—home economics, social studies, mathematics, science—can make, and of the responsibilities of college teachers and adult leaders in this area. Chapter 20 is devoted to an extensive annotated bibliography which should be of inestimable value to busy teachers. The index is such that it permits of easy access to the materials of the book and to easy cross-reference work.

R. H. McF.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

American Negro Slave Revolts. By Herbert Aptheker. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. 409. \$4.50.

This is the first comprehensive and scholarly study of this important problem in American history. Carefully documented, containing an extensive bibliography and a good index, this book should receive a warm welcome from students of American history.

Modern World Geography. By Earl C. Case and Daniel R. Bergsmark. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1943. Pp. x, 746. \$2.20.

This is a revised edition of an extensively used textbook in geography. It has been brought up-to-date and stresses particularly the economic and social phases of the topic. It is well illustrated, the maps are good, the charts and tables helpful, and the index is full.

Man The Measure. By Erich Kahler. New York: Pantheon Books, 1943. Pp. 700. \$5.00.

Erich Kahler, an eminent historian, presents a masterly study of the development of various expressions and activities of human beings—religion, politics, economics, science, art, technology—their function and significance through the various periods of man's history and the part that they will play in the future. It contains an extensive bibliography and a very thorough index.

HISTORICAL FICTION

and other reading references for

JUNIOR and SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

By HANNAH LOGASA, *University of Chicago*

★ This new and much enlarged edition of Miss Logasa's popular reference book, now includes sections on Latin American and Canadian History as well as the ones on American, Ancient, Medieval and Modern History included in the previous editions.

On each of the several thousand books listed in HISTORICAL FICTION, the author title, publisher and publication date is furnished, together with a one-line description, giving the time, place and characters dealt with in the book. Interesting narrative, biographic and source books are also included in this complete list.

192 pages, cloth bound.

PRICE: \$2.20 a copy postpaid.

\$2.00 a copy postpaid to educational institutions and libraries.

McKINLEY PUBLISHING CO., 809-811 North 19th Street
Philadelphia 30, Pennsylvania

EXTRA SIZE DESK OUTLINE MAPS

The Complete series of maps in this size is:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 18AA European and English History (College Board) | 25AA North America
(State and Province Boundaries) |
| 19AA American History (College Board) | 27AA The World
(Elliptical Projection with National Boundaries) |
| 20AA Ancient History (College Board) | 28AA The World (Mercator projection) |
| 21AA Medieval Europe | 29AA United States |
| 22AA Europe | |

Price: 5 cents a copy; on orders of 50 or more, \$2.75 per 100.

The first three of these maps were prepared for College Entrance Examination Board's papers in European and English, in American and in Ancient History. The others were added to meet the needs of college and secondary schools for maps on a larger scale than heretofore available.

Samples of our Desk Maps in various sizes will be sent upon request

McKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY

809-811 N. 19th St.

Philadelphia 30

Main Currents in English History. By Frank J. Klingberg. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943. Pp. ix, 209. \$1.65.

Herein the reader will find, in an interesting, readable account, the origins and developments of many modern ideas and institutions which exist in England and have their counterpart in America. This book should prove helpful in courses in English history and American history. Its list of additional readings is extensive, the index is adequate for most purposes.

The War Governors in the American Revolution. By Margaret B. Macmillan. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. 309. \$3.50.

Students and teachers will find this careful study of the war governors of the thirteen colonies a valuable aid in rounding out the picture of the Revolutionary period. It contains an extensive bibliography and a very thorough index.

United We Stand. By Basil Mathews. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1943. Pp. xiii, 366. \$2.50.

An interesting study, usable in secondary schools, of the people of the thirty-two United Nations—their past, their present, their desires for the future—written by a well qualified man.

Jefferson and the Press. By Frank L. Mott. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1943. Pp. 65. \$1.00.

Jefferson's philosophy of the press and his experiences with the newspapers of his time are presented for the first time in this little volume. It is well written, interesting and informative, and should serve as excellent supplementary material for courses in American history and journalism.

America's School. By John Dale Russell and T. Eldon Jackson. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1943. Pp. 62. 30 cents.

Unit No. 16 in the *Problems in American Life Series* which teachers of social studies are finding so helpful, especially in problems of American democracy courses.

The Health of a Nation. By Michael M. Davis, Bernhard J. Stern and Lavone A. Hanna.

Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1943. Pp. 84. 30 cents.

Unit No. 17 of the *Problems in American Life Series*. It is a resource unit for teachers, and deals with one of the fundamental problems in America. Like the others in this series, the teaching aids are extremely helpful to teachers.

Politics in Action. By Arthur N. Holcombe and James E. Downes. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1943. Pp. 56. 30 cents.

Unit No. 18 of the *Problems in American Life Series* and is a resource unit for teachers dealing with the problems of representative government. Like the others, teachers will find this unit helpful in all phases of unit construction.

The Races of Mankind. By Ruth Benedict and Gene Weltfish. New York: Public Affairs Committee, 1943. Pp. 31. 10 cents.

One of the very excellent Public Affairs Pamphlets and deals with one of the most important problems with which the world is faced today.

When Children Ask About Sex. By the Staff of the Child Study Association of America. New York: Child Study Association of America, 1943. Pp. 15. 20 cents.

This small pamphlet should prove very helpful to teachers and to parents of small children. It answers many of the perplexing problems growing out of this important question and suggests some excellent supplementary reading materials.

Tests of Critical Thinking. By Goodwin Watson and Edward Maynard Glaser. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1943. Battery I, Battery II, each per package of 25, net \$2.00. Specimen set, postpaid 45 cents.

These tests offer a means for obtaining a measure of ability to think critically with regard to problems involving interpretation of data, drawing inferences, making warranted generalizations, discriminating between strong and weak arguments, recognizing unstated assumptions in reasoning, and other aspects of critical thinking. Social studies teachers whose objectives include this important phase of intelligent, democratic living will welcome this attempt to help them evaluate growth in these directions.

The Social Studies

Volume XXXV, Number 2

Continuing The Historical Outlook

February, 1944

ARTHUR C. BINING, *Editor*

MORRIS WOLF, *Assistant Editor*

A. E. MCKINLEY, JR., *Managing Editor*

RICHARD H. MCFEELY, *Book Review Editor*

EDITORIAL BOARD

HATTIE M. ANDERSON
*West Texas State Teachers
College
Canyon, Tex.*

JAMES J. FLYNN
*Bishop Loughlin Memo-
rial High School
Brooklyn, N.Y.*

WILLIAM E. LINGELBACH
*University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.*

EDWIN M. PURINTON
*Maine Central Institute
Pittsfield, Me.*

JULIAN ARONSON
*Seward Park High School
New York, N.Y.*

BESS HEDGES
*College High School
Bartlesville, Okla.*

ASA E. MARTIN
*Pennsylvania State College
State College, Pa.*

HERBERT WING, JR.
*Dickinson College
Carlisle, Pa.*

NANCY O. DEVERS
*Division of Instructional
Service
Raleigh, N.C.*

HOMER T. KNIGHT
*Garfield High School
Seattle, Wash.*

ROY F. NICHOLS
*University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.*

THOMAS WOODY
*University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.*

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER
*De Witt Clinton Junior
High School
Mount Vernon, N.Y.*

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON
*New York University
New York, N.Y.*

CHARLOTTE M. NOTEBOOM
*University of South Dakota
Vermillion, S.D.*

Contents

A Plea for a People's University on the Radio and Screen	Margaret Monrad	51
Strengthening Our Morale	Allan Mathias Pitkanen	57
General C. L. Chennault	John R. Craf	59
Preparing for the Post-War Period	Frances Norene Ahl	61
The Problems of the Post-War Period	Harl R. Douglass	62
Revised Historical Viewpoints	Ralph B. Guinness	64
The Venerable Anglo-Portuguese Treaty	James E. Gillespie	65
The Origin and Growth of the Medieval Universities	Ellen Perry Pride	70
For Whom Is Social Service	Ethel S. Beer	75
Benjamin Franklin and Education	The National Franklin Committee	79
Course Revisions Proposed by the Middle States Council for the Social Studies	Jeannette P. Nichols	81
Visual and Other Aids	Maurice P. Hunt	84
News and Comment	Morris Wolf	85
Book Reviews and Book Notes	Richard H. McFeely	90
Current Publications Received		94

THE SOCIAL STUDIES does not accept responsibility for the views expressed in articles, reviews, and other contributions which appear in its pages. It provides opportunities for publication of materials which may represent divergent ideas, judgments and opinions.

EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.

Subscription \$2.00 a year, single numbers 30 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Copyright, 1944, McKinley Publishing Co. Entered as second-class matter, October 26, 1909, at Post Office at Philadelphia, Pa., under Act of March 3, 1879.

Additional entry as second-class matter at the Post Office at Menasha, Wis. Printed in U.S.A.

New!

For High Schools

PACKARD-OVERTON-WOOD

OUR AIR-AGE WORLD



A Textbook in Global Geography

A distinct departure

from all former presentations of geography, this one projects the study of nations and peoples today wholly from the modern global concept of the earth.

It is the modern geography needed to equip young Americans to live in our changing world, where airplane and radio have revolutionized our concepts of trade, transportation, centers of commerce and industry, and human relations.

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

Publishers